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On March 20 there assembled at Cambridge, Massachusetts, a notable group of leaders in American life to pay the respects of the nation to President-emeritus Charles W. Eliot on the occasion of his ninetieth birthday. Chief Justice Taft spoke of President Eliot's contribution to individual liberty and intelligent citizenship. President Angell of Yale spoke of President Eliot's service to education in his sponsorship of the elective system and in his insistence on improvements in teaching. Others, chosen to represent the trustees and alumni of Harvard, described the influence of President Eliot within that institution.

The principals and teachers of the secondary schools of the United States will not forget the fact that this broad-minded leader did more than any other man has ever done for the high schools of the country. The report of the Committee of Ten, which is a monument to his energy and insight, marks the beginning of that period of expansion of democratic higher education which is one of the most striking social phenomena of the last half-century. President Eliot saw, in the early nineties, that the high schools could be made conscious in a new way of their problems and relationships, and he assumed leadership in a movement that has

never been equaled in influence on the educational system of the country.

President Eliot's part in the celebration at Cambridge is so characteristic of the man and so full of sound encouragement to those who work in education that it will be read with interest by all who enjoy, as do the members of our generation, the educational advantages which his courage and wisdom have achieved.

The *New York Times* gives the following account of President Eliot's share in the proceedings:

When Dr. Eliot was introduced, a storm of applause drowned his first words. Three times he sought to speak, but each time he had to stop. Finally, his voice came through as the hand-clapping died away. He might have been fifty instead of ninety as he stood there beginning his response, with his shock of white hair, blue eyes glinting through his spectacles, hands clasped in front and thumbs twiddling. He said:

"The affectionate note of this tribute goes straight to my heart. It fills me, in fact, with wonder. But it touches me deeply. This day is going to be one of the happiest and most delightful of my memories. I have received the encomiums of the speakers with a certain sense that I have not fully understood. One of them said that I had an unusual amount of courage. That has never entered my mind. I confess to recognizing another quality to which President Lowell referred—a readiness for combat. I look back upon my life as a boy, sometimes engaged in those rough-and-tumble fights which we boys used to have on Boston Common, and I recognized there at a tender age that I did display considerable enjoyment in fighting.

"But when it comes to maturer life, I find that the source of this quality described as courage is simply this—that I never stopped any attempts of mine because I looked forward to opposition. I was regardless of risks and opposition. I was eager to do something in the future. It was that part of my nature which, by its expression, enabled me to look forward and not back, to look out and not in. At the close of my life, or near the close of my life, I do not know any better advice to give to the graduates of Harvard College or to the undergraduates of Harvard College than that contained in those two phrases: 'Look forward and not backward; look out and not in.'

"I confess that I received with great delight what the president of the University said about the spreading influence of Harvard in the present day. I recognize that I have been unusually strong and have had unusually good health and that a great deal of the influence I have exerted—what has been described as my personality—is derived from those two facts, strength and health; and with those two things, strength and health, went a great joy in work—just in work. I need not stop to consider why I had joy in work. I never 'looked in' enough to think of that even. But joy in work has been the source of a very large part of my life.

"Consider now the sources of my career as a teacher. The sources were in the times—in that wonderful period of human history in which my whole career was laid. Think of it! When I was going on as a teacher in Harvard, the great prophets and exponents of experimental science were taking possession of that great field. Think how the philosophers of the world were preaching attention to the individual—preaching the immense variety of human nature. Think how James Russell Lowell was telling us that democracy must not only raise the average mass but must give a free field to all the finest qualities of human nature, for that is the only salvation for democracy. Think how Emerson came into power in the days of my youth! Think how Oliver Wendell Holmes enlarged the conception of human sagacity, penetration, and discrimination, combined with great power of expression in both prose and poetry! Think how Asa Gray, Benjamin Peirce, and others were the leaders of thought in science, especially American science, and the methods of teaching!

"All of that came when I was a teacher in Harvard, and out of the times, the extraordinary period, have come the ideals and the lessons which I have pursued all through my activity. Then, as the years went by and the period of combat and persistent effort against opposition passed, and the new structure of Harvard University began to take effect, think how it gave me the opportunity to see where modern education was going and where it ought to go.

"You must, therefore, attribute the successes which I have been privileged to win to the very fortunate circumstances of my life, to the extraordinary leadership of the philosophers and scientists of my time.

"And now I want to say a word to the graduates of Harvard here assembled. I do not think I could say it better than I said it in my inaugural address in 1869. The words are:

"There have been doubts, in times yet recent, whether culture were not satisfied, whether men of refined tastes and manners could really love liberty and be ready to endure hardness for her sake. In yon old playground, fit spot whereon to commemorate the manliness which there was nurtured, shall soon rise a noble monument which for generations will give convincing answer to such shallow doubts, for over its gates will be written: 'In memory of the sons of Harvard who died for their country.' The future of the University will not be unworthy of its past."

"How the young Harvard men demonstrated in the world war that that last line is true—'The future of the University will not be unworthy of its past.' But let me finally emphasize the duty of Harvard men—of all educated men—to serve their country in peace as well as in war. I call upon the young Harvard graduates, and by and by I will call on the undergraduates, to serve their country with devotion and sacrifice in peace as well as in war."

After a brief visit to the Brooks House, Dr. Eliot was motored over to the platform in the yard, where he was greeted in a short speech by Charles J. Hubbard, Jr., marshal of the class of 1924 and guard on the football team, who spoke of the traditions of the University.

"What has been said anticipates what I intended to say, namely, that the spirit of Harvard is wonderfully permanent," said Dr. Eliot, "in spite of the great variety of views, opinions, and practices in public and private life on the part of its graduates. I saw exactly the same spirit among the young men of Harvard when the Civil War broke out which I lately saw when America went to war with Germany—the same identical spirit, the same purpose to do one's best to serve human welfare through our country. That is just the message I want to give to you today, young men.

"Serve the country; serve her in peace as well as in war; serve her by sacrifice—money, for example, high professional earnings, in order to take public office, elective or appointive office—serve her by your personal exertion in the towns, in the cities, in the communities where you settle for your life. Look for the means, the chance, the opportunity to serve democratic government. It is in democracy that the hope of the world lies. Commit to memory Pasteur's definition of democracy when he said: 'Democracy is that government or state of government which leaves every citizen to do his best for the public welfare.' Follow that. Wherever you live, take every chance that comes to you and make chances, if they do not come, for serving the public welfare.

"One other thing I want to say to you, young men: use the opportunity of selecting studies which you have at Harvard to find out, while you are here, in what work, in what profession, you can find joy in your work all your life. That is the thing that every young man ought to seek to find out—In what calling, in what profession, in what occupation am I going to find the work which will give me joy all of my days? I have learned by observation of my own life, and I have indulged very little in such observations; but I observed some time ago that a large part of the happiness of life for me (putting aside, of course, domestic joys, the joys that come with marriage and children), that the chief satisfaction of my life—and it has been a very durable one—has come out of the joy of work. See to it, therefore, that you learn in what occupation or profession you will find long and continuous joy in work.

"There is one other exhortation which I should like to give you. Avoid to the utmost introspection; avoid dwelling on your own state of mind. Does that seem to you opposite from the direction I last gave you? I said that you should seek to find out where you can get joy in work. No, the joy in work which you will need does not involve self-reference. It does involve study on your part and, with the help of teachers and friends, attention to that calling in which you will find joy. But it does not involve introspection, reflection on yourself, or, as it is common to speak of now, self-expression. The less you think of yourselves in this world, the better; and the sooner you get the passion for serving others, at home and abroad, at home particularly, the better.

"Do not put off marriage too long. Do not wait till you think you can offer the girl you want to marry all the luxuries and privileges to which she is accustomed in her father's home. When you have made up your mind, give the girl a chance to tell you hers.

"Another exhortation: If you find that, on the whole, you do not like the profession in which you have ventured, do not stay in it. Do not persevere in it but find another occupation. I have seen in my long observation of young men many cases in which the happiness of life was wrecked because the young man thought he must stay in the profession he did not enjoy. Never give yourself that sort of disappointment. If you find the mode of life on which you have entered is not satisfying, search for another and persevere until you have found the right place for yourself.

"A large part of the happiness I experience today comes from the fact that the hundreds of testimonials which reached me come from persons who are complete strangers to me and always have been, from persons with whom, according to their stories, I never had any direct contact. They tell me that their careers have been determined by something they heard me say at a public meeting in their town or by a passage in my writings which early attracted their attention. It is a delightful part of my experience today to try to imagine how diffuse my influence has been for more than fifty years—yes, sixty years—and it is a great delight to remember—not to remember but to be told—that actions of which I was at the time unconscious and now have no memory have been happy in the experience of thousands of persons."

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools held its twenty-ninth annual meeting at the Hotel Sherman in Chicago on March 21 and 22. Several important matters came up for discussion. The first was the problem of the professional training of high-school teachers. For some years past the association has required eleven semester hours in education of all new teachers of the academic subjects employed in the schools on the approved list. Three years ago the requirement was raised to fifteen hours, and the date September, 1924, was set as the date at which the new requirement should become effective. At the meeting of 1923 and immediately preceding there was a vigorous campaign, carried on chiefly by certain deans of academic departments of colleges in the association, to secure the repeal of the new rule. The association ordered a referendum to be taken and appointed a committee to carry out the order. The committee had as its chairman Principal Milo H. Stuart of the Technical High School of Indianapolis. It prepared a statement of the arguments for and against the new rule and asked all of the high schools and

colleges in the association to express opinions as to the cogency of the various arguments and as to the main issue.

The referendum indicated that the following arguments were regarded by members of the association as the strongest in favor of an adoption of the fifteen-hour requirement:

The North Central Association, as the principal standardizing agency in the North Central territory, should be keenly interested in any improvement in the direction of stressing the professional character of the work of the teacher. The association should lead, therefore, in determining the professional preparation of teachers. The present requirement of eleven hours is the lowest requirement of the North Central states.

Professional training has for its purpose the awakening of a consciousness of the service which the profession should render, a zeal and interest in its tasks, and a technical skill necessary for doing these. The increase from eleven to fifteen hours would tend further to bar the use of teaching as a stepping stone for those unwilling to take such essential preparatory courses in education.

There is an increasing demand that teachers be encouraged to secure further preparation after entering service. The increase from eleven to fifteen hours would tend to promote this, and the result would be a higher average of professional training on the part of the teachers in the schools accredited by the association.

The following were considered as the strongest reasons for retaining the eleven-hour requirement:

There are other, more effective ways of improving the professional preparation of teachers, such as the more accurate definition of acceptable courses in education including more subjects intended to awaken a consciousness of the scope and importance of public education, the requirement of higher standards for supervisors of education, and other possible modifications of the present eleven-hour requirement.

This standard would be extremely difficult of enforcement in those states having a lower requirement than fifteen hours for certification by the state. The association would be in a position of declaring that the legally qualified teacher in these states is not qualified to teach in the North Central schools, and this position would be very difficult to defend.

The increase to fifteen hours would be decidedly unfair to many of the present teachers since it would require them to take additional work in education in order to be eligible to move from one school to another. While additional training for present teachers should be encouraged by the association, it would appear that the older teachers should be given a choice as to whether this preparation should be secured in education courses or in academic fields.

On the main question the vote was as follows: For fifteen hours: secondary schools, 661; colleges, 77; individual members, 12. For eleven hours: secondary schools, 184; colleges, 77; individual members, 5.

A second matter of major importance came up when the standards for junior colleges were under consideration. The commission which formulated these standards had included a section urging, though not making absolutely obligatory, as complete a separation as possible between high schools and junior colleges with respect to students, faculty, and physical equipment. The debate on this clause brought out very clearly the fact that in many instances wasteful duplication of equipment would result from the enforcement of the standard and that certain advantages which now issue from the intimate relation between high schools and junior colleges would be lost. The association, after full consideration, voted to omit the standard which called for separation.

A third matter of moment was the adoption of a full set of standards for junior high schools and instruction to the Commission on Secondary Schools to prepare an approved list of such schools for the next annual meeting of the association.

This last action brought up once more the question of adjusting college-entrance requirements so as to limit the rules regarding such requirements to the last three years of high-school work. The association has in the past been unwilling to take any formal action in the direction of such a limitation. It is probably true that a vote in favor of such a limitation could not be passed at the present time, but the proposal when mentioned was not vigorously challenged. It is to be hoped in the interests of a free development of the junior high school that the colleges will withdraw from their efforts to direct the high-school organization for the present full period of four years. If the work that a student does in the senior high school is not a suitable basis of judgment regarding his fitness for college, the inclusion of the remote fourth year will hardly help the colleges in reaching a rational decision.

The next meeting of the association will be held in Chicago on March 20 and 21, 1925.

RELIGIOUS TEACHING DURING SCHOOL HOURS

An interesting legal question is raised in a recent opinion rendered by the attorney-general of North Dakota. The newspaper report of the matter is as follows:

Public schools may not permit the withdrawal of children one hour of the school day each week for the purpose of religious instruction in parochial schools, according to an opinion rendered by George Shafer, attorney-general, to Minnie J. Nielson, state superintendent, on request of the North Dakota Sunday School Association.

Construing the law allowing abridgment of the compulsory education and permitting withdrawal of pupils for religious instruction, the attorney-general held that the statute is not "sufficiently broad" to "permit the daily sessions of the public school to be shortened or interfered with on account of such an occasion and that pupils who are enrolled for regular attendance must attend the school for the full period during which such school is in session, unless excused on other grounds allowed by law."

The attorney-general, in specifically answering, said, "It is, therefore, my opinion that the statute herein involved must be amended and broadened in order lawfully to authorize the release of pupils during any portion of the school day for parochial or religious training."

The act which the attorney-general was asked to construe provides that the compulsory attendance act "shall not be construed to apply to parents or guardians or other persons having control of children of compulsory school age who desire to send such child or children for a total period of not exceeding six months, which may be taken from one or more years, to any parochial school for the purpose of preparing such child or children for certain religious duties."

SCHOLARSHIPS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES

It is becoming increasingly common for all kinds of public interests to establish college scholarships available to high-school students through essay contests or competitive examinations. The following have recently been called to the attention of the editors of the *School Review*:

The American Legion, through its national Americanization Commission, has established an annual essay contest to foster and encourage higher education, citizenship, and Americanism through stimulating high-school Seniors to write on public and patriotic questions. The prizes offered are as follows: first prize, \$750; second prize, \$500; third prize, \$250, each to be used toward a scholarship in any institution of higher education that the winner may designate.

The Highway Education Board, Washington, D.C., has offered for several years a four-year college scholarship donated by H. S. Firestone, Akron, Ohio, for the best essay on the value of improved highways. The purpose of the contest is to stimulate interest among high-school students, their parents, teachers, and acquaintances in one of the nation's most vital problems, the development and the economic use of improved roads and highway transportation. The contest is intended to encourage studious investigation, research, and keen observation.

The *Chicago Daily News* is the sponsor of a unique oratorical contest of national scope to encourage students in the secondary schools to interpret the Constitution of the United States. The final award will be made in Washington on June 6. The major prizes consist of three scholarships with cash values of \$1,000, \$500, and \$300, respectively.

Swarthmore College has recently established experimentally five annual scholarships for men, not restricted to particular school, locality, subject of study, or religious denomination. The scholarships are awarded on the general plan of the Rhodes scholarships. They are conferred upon high-school students without examination on the basis of the indorsement of the high-school principal, the school record of the student, and the results of a conference between the student and a representative of the college and are intended for the men who show the greatest promise in (1) qualities of manhood, force of character, and leadership, (2) literary and scholastic ability and attainments, and (3) physical vigor, as indicated by interest in outdoor sports or in other ways. The scholarships pay \$500 each year for four years, provided a high standing in the college is maintained. To be eligible, a candidate must be between sixteen and twenty-one years of age on September 1 of the year for which he is to be appointed and must have at least fifteen units of acceptable high-school credits. He must also not have attended another college or university.

THE TREND IN MODERN LANGUAGES

For several years the *Modern Language Journal* has published from time to time in its news items figures on enrolment in the modern language courses in various colleges. In comparing the

figures for the current academic year with those given in 1922 by the same institutions we find evidence of a tendency on the part of the registrations in the leading modern languages to return to their pre-war distribution.

The data in the accompanying table indicate that, in general, French is practically holding its own, that Spanish is on the decline, and that German is becoming more popular. The University of

ENROLMENT IN FRENCH, SPANISH, AND GERMAN COURSES IN ELEVEN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN THE AUTUMN OF 1923 AND THE TREND AS COMPARED WITH THE ENROLMENT OF 1922

INSTITUTION	ENROLMENT, 1923			TREND*		
	French	Spanish	German	French	Spanish	German
Beloit College.....	132	95	49	<i>i</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>i</i>
Bowdoin College.....	211	65	156	<i>e</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>i</i>
Bates College.....	231	117	179	<i>e</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>i</i>
Carroll College.....	83	89	64			
Colby College.....	212	60	202	<i>e</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>i</i>
University of Iowa.....				<i>d</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>i</i>
Lawrence College.....	284	172	114	<i>d</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>i</i>
University of Maine.....	232	214	135	<i>e</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>d</i>
Marquette University.....	139	117	123			
Ripon College.....	91	89	51	<i>e</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>i</i>
University of Wisconsin...	2,502	1,496	1,023	<i>i</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>i</i>

* *d*=decrease; *e*=equal; *i*=increase.

Iowa reports an increase in enrolment in German courses of 20 per cent, the University of Wisconsin an increase of 44.7 per cent, and Beloit College a gain of 69 per cent. At Colby College and Bowdoin College the enrolment in German has been on the increase for the last four years, while Spanish has declined. Local conditions may have something to do with the change in certain institutions, but the figures apparently indicate a marked trend in the direction of a re-evaluation of the modern languages on the part of American college students.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS

William B. Ittner has rendered so signal a service to American education in designing school buildings that the *School Review* is departing from its general practices and is inserting advertising in its editorial pages. The firm of which Mr. Ittner is the head has

published an attractively illustrated book which describes some of the schools that have been built under its supervision.

The following paragraph from the text of this book seems to the present writer to be an excellent example of high-grade business wisdom:

With the present high building costs and increasing educational demands on buildings, economy in planning and construction becomes a vital factor. Cheaply constructed school buildings, however, are never economical. Poor planning results in much waste and educational inefficiency. Every superintendent will bear witness to the fact that a poorly-planned building causes daily waste and inconvenience in the operation of the school. Unsubstantial construction for permanent buildings like schools results in early replacement on account of rapid deterioration and an expenditure of large sums of money for upkeep and repair.

PART-TIME WORK IN BANKS

The *Laurel Advocate*, published in Laurel, Cedar County, Nebraska, gives the following account of a part-time arrangement made by the high school of that town:

In September, 1923, at the opening of school, several of the senior boys who had no definite idea of what they intended to do after graduating, were offered an opportunity to enter local banks and learn the business, each student being required to put in a half-day's work at the bank every day of the week, with no salary, but with the expectation of receiving two high-school credits toward graduation. The other half-day must be spent at the high-school where the pupil must take two other regular high-school subjects. The officers of the local banks have been very kind in co-operating with the school in this work, as have the other employers, and all must be given a great deal of credit for the success of the experiment.

Three of the senior boys who were selected by the mutual agreement of the bank and school officials took up this plan of work in our three banks.

Mr. Burnham, director of secondary education in Nebraska, on being informed of the project, suggested that some boy be given the opportunity to take up work as a mechanic, carpenter, blacksmith, or something of the sort, so as to offset the feeling that our apprenticeship plan intended to fit the pupils for "white-collar" jobs only. His suggestion was followed, and one junior boy has been apprenticed as a carpenter, while another has taken up work in the electric light plant to further his knowledge of electrical engineering which he expects to follow in the future. About the same time, a senior girl asked for the privilege of entering the telephone office for a quarter of a day to learn the work there. Arrangements were made for her to do so, and during the past semester these six high-school students have been "on the job" steadily.

The idea of this apprenticeship plan is to give the high-school pupil an opportunity to learn to do some kind of work so that he or she may be prepared to do something definite after graduation. It also gives the pupil a chance to discover what he may want to do in after life. One of the best phases of the work is that it gives the pupil a chance to know what he does not want to do. Before taking up this apprenticeship work, the pupils must express their desire for some particular work. They must also be accepted by the employers, for otherwise no co-operation can be expected. When pupils discover that our business men do not wish to have them in their places of business because of their habits, characteristics, or reputation, they are more likely to conduct themselves as young men and women of character and integrity.

Pupils choosing this work understand that it is not a method whereby they may escape school work but that it is very serious business. They are under orders from their employers and are graded on their promptness, efficiency, courtesy, and general attitude.

That the plan has been successful in Laurel is shown by the approval of the students doing the work, the business men employing them, and the parents of the pupils. Practically all of them state that, in their opinion, the plan is a good one. Some suggestions have been made to improve it, and several will be followed. A plan as recent as this one is not perfect, but the general idea seems so practical that it should be taken up at other places and further improvements made. One bank has already asked for a boy to take up this work for next year.

While it may seem that six pupils are hardly a sufficient number on which to base an article of this kind, the number was intentionally low so as to keep the experiment within limits and study it more closely. The students selected were average and were chosen by mutual agreement rather than hand picked to get good results. The local school men now feel that the plan can be widened and opened to other kinds of business. A boy wishing to study pharmacy can learn a great deal and be of some help in a drug store. Boys wishing to become mechanics can get practical education along this line in the local garages. Other boys and girls interested in mercantile business can gain considerable knowledge by entering local establishments. Boys or girls interested in journalism can get a good start in the local printing office. Boys desiring to become plumbers, blacksmiths, carpenters, masons, etc., can learn a good business. In that way, they learn that all kinds of honest labor are honorable and that possibly there is not such a great chasm between labor and capital.

THE PROBLEM OF DIFFERENTIATION AND STANDARDIZATION OF ART WORK IN MODERN HIGH SCHOOLS. I

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There are two outstanding phases of art work which should be given special attention when planning the curriculum for the high school: (1) the *element of differentiation* and (2) the *element of universal standardization*.

The adequate differentiation of the art work of each high school so as to meet the needs of the community and, further, the particularization of the courses within each school so as to provide for the various types of students represent a large part of the high-school art problem. An equally large part of the problem, if not a more important part, and one which has received far less attention, is the question of standardization.

The element of differentiation.—The fundamental objectives of art work are, in general, the same in the high school in a small city or town as in the high school in a large city. There are, however, certain aspects which place the two types of school in different categories. In the case of the small city or town, the high school is a unit in itself. It is largely self-centered and must develop under its own roof the functions of its various departments.

In many cases the small high school is inadequate from the standpoint of the number of teachers, the number of courses offered, and the available funds. Every state in the union has a large number of small high schools. According to a statement made by the state superintendent of public instruction of Indiana, nearly three-fourths of Indiana's high schools enrol each not more than 100 pupils.¹ In most cases this means a three- or four-teacher school

¹ Alexander Inglis, *Plans for Obtaining Higher Efficiency and Lower Cost of Maintenance of Small High Schools*, p. 2. Indianapolis, Indiana: Department of Public Instruction, 1922.

and curriculums restricted to from eighteen to twenty-four units of instruction, as shown in Table I.

TABLE I
PROGRAM OF STUDIES FOR A THREE-TEACHER FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL*

All Pupils	
English 1 English 2 English 3 English 4 Civics General history American history Economics and government General science Biology Physics	
Academic Pupils	Non-Academic Pupils
Algebra Geometry Foreign language 1 Foreign language 2 Home economics or agriculture 1 unit	General mathematics Home economics 1 or Agriculture 1 Home economics 2 or Agriculture 2 Home economics 3 or Agriculture 3 Home economics 4 or Agriculture 4
Total 16 units	Total 16 units

* Alexander Inglis, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

It is not intended in [Table I] necessarily to delimit the subjects offered to the exact studies listed. Substitutions may be made: e.g., some other combination of social studies, or some other applied-arts subjects for some of the home economics and agriculture. It should be noted, however, that there is danger in adding any other field of study, since too large a range of different studies necessitates a wider range of qualifications than teachers in the small high school usually possess.¹

It is evident that in such a scheme there is far too little room for effective art work. To make effective art work possible in these small schools is one of the important tasks of art education at the present time.

In the large city the high school has direct contact with many institutions and activities not in existence in the smaller community. These institutions and activities influence to a certain degree the general scope of the work in the school and broaden its activities perceptibly. For example, there is the important influence of the

¹ Alexander Inglis, *op. cit.*, pp. 4-5.

museum, the libraries, the art school, the great commercial and industrial organizations, the excellent exhibitions, the opera, the theater, the fine examples of architecture, the parks and recreation centers, and the general informational and educational atmosphere associated with the life of our large cities.

There is also a greater opportunity for expansion and specialization in the separate departments of the large city high school. This is true because of the larger number of students in these departments, the greater opportunities for educational research, and, generally, the more ample funds for making surveys, for experimenting with new practices, and for carrying on extra-school work.

The art department of the Washington Irving High School, New York City, is an example of this greater school activity. There the students are trained for work in the art professions. The art department is, in fact, a junior art school. Very close contact is maintained with practical commercial needs for art. The Ethical Culture School of New York City has organized the work of its art department in a similar extensive manner.

A school of a more specialized type is the School of Industrial Arts at Trenton, New Jersey, of which Frank Forrest Frederick is the director. This school receives pupils directly from the elementary school, from the high school, or from the trades, and trains them for an art profession. The school offers courses in fine art, in industrial art or fine art as applied to the industries, in several of the art-crafts, and in dressmaking and millinery. It offers, in evening classes, to men and boys employed during the day, vocational courses for the machine, building, electrical, and ceramic trades, and, in day classes, courses for boys who wish to fit themselves for careers in the industries. Mention might be made of many similar institutions of high-school type operating in our large cities but doing infinitely more from the art and industrial standpoints than can properly be expected of the ordinary high school.

The co-operation with the art school or museum which exists in many cities represents another example of extra-curricular activity in art. There is excellent co-ordination of the work of the public school with the work of the art school in Chicago, Indianapolis, Toledo, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Pittsburgh, New York, and Boston. This work is carried on in many cases as extension work, for which

regular school credit is given, and also as extra-school work in Saturday classes and vacation schools.

The difference in objectives of schools located in different kinds of communities should be noted. It is evident that industrial and manufacturing towns—such as Grand Rapids, Michigan; Trenton, New Jersey; Newell, West Virginia; and Clinton, Iowa—have many reasons for placing emphasis on the industrial aspects of art work. In residential towns where a majority of the pupils in the school are likely to attend college or university, emphasis is often placed on the academic or cultural aspect of art work.

It is apparent that differentiation is a significant part of the problem of high-school curriculum-planning and will, no doubt, always continue to be a factor in public education.

The element of standardization.—In spite of the great differences in community and local interests and their effect on the school and in spite of the differences in pupils' needs for art, the general fundamental policy of high-school art work should become standardized in the same degree as work is being standardized in reading, arithmetic, history, science, literature, and other subjects in the school.

Standardization should be strictly in the *new* sense; that is, it should emphasize a precise nomenclature, sensible units of instruction, and thoughtful methods of procedure. "Precise nomenclature" may be obtained by classifying the subject-matter of art into the fundamental elements of art structure and by using terms for the designation of this subject-matter which mean the same thing in San Francisco, Seattle, Chicago, New York, and New Orleans.¹ "Sensible units of instruction" means the use of subject-matter which is adapted to the mental age of the pupils in each grade and which is not necessarily based on an adult standard. "Thoughtful methods of procedure" means the educational method of presentation and conduct of classroom exercises and problems, not the studio method.

Standardization in the school should be made synonymous with *dependability*. We need rational standards—progressive, not fixed—which move forward with each new achievement in school

¹ See "Curriculum-building in Art" (course of study based on line, form, tone, color, and composition), *Elementary School Journal*, XXI (December, 1920, and January, 1921), 281-89, 352-60.

methods, organization, and procedure. This field of standardization includes the vast quantity of art material of genuine value to all pupils whether they may be classified as in the realm of academic culture or in the utilitarian field of commercial and industrial education.

Fortunately, the leaders of art education have for several years stressed the fact that art instruction in the public school "has very much the same sort of relation to rare aptitudes on the one hand and general abilities on the other that literature or mathematics possesses, or in fact any other subject which opens a vista for a high degree of specialization and at the same time touches common experience at innumerable points."¹

Under present conditions, standardization has already begun. This manifests itself in the classification of art work into two broad divisions:

1. *Appropriate art training for the ordinary pupil.* This means a type of art education of value to the pupil no matter what his profession is to be. It aims to train all pupils in the power of aesthetic appreciation, to develop an art-loving public possessing a high degree of good taste and good judgment in things artistic, and to create on the part of all pupils a consciousness of beauty whether in the so-called "fine arts," in the industrial or "everyday" arts, or in the great realm of nature.

2. *Appropriate art training for the special-talent pupil.* This means a type of art training that will effectively assist in fitting gifted pupils for the profession of art. It aims to discover and conserve art talent and cause it to be developed along lines most appropriate for each individual case. No neglect should be permitted with respect to the exceptional pupils in our worthy desire properly to care for the mass of pupils.

Two distinct kinds of courses are required for this program. These are, first, the courses of the *general arts type* and, second, the *special arts courses* of various kinds. It is highly important from the art standpoint that the general arts courses be required during two full years of the high school, if possible—certainly during one year, preferably the first year.

¹ Walter Sargent, "Art Courses in High Schools," *School Review*, XXIV (February, 1916), 108.

Figure 1 is designed to show several plans for organizing sequences with respect to required and elective art courses in the school. The art work from the kindergarten through the high school is represented. Divisions are made for the kindergarten, the primary and grammar grades, the intermediate grades or the junior high school, and the senior high school. Plan 1 is for the ordinary 8-4 school organization, while Plans 2, 3, and 4 are based on the 6-3-3 organization now being used effectively in many cities. Plans 1 and 4 are especially recommended for the consideration of supervisors of art who wish to develop a logical sequence of art work throughout the school.

In Plan 1 the work of the elementary school is based on either the general arts or the industrial arts and extends throughout the first eight grades. The general arts course is then offered as a required subject in the first year of the high school, and specialized elective art courses are offered during the last three years.¹

In Plan 2 a minimum amount of art work is shown. The work of the elementary school is based on the general arts. The general arts course is required in the first year of the junior high school for students majoring in art but is elective for other students. All of the other art work of the high school is elective. A very broad course is offered in drawing and design. The work includes, besides drawing and design, special problems in composition and color, modeling, several art-craft projects, and construction work developed in connection with various phases of art appreciation. A very comprehensive course is also offered in the history and survey of art. These courses may be elected in any of the last years of the high school. Considerable extra-curricular work in art is required of students majoring in art under this plan. It is evident that such a scheme is restricted, but it offers possibilities if a highly trained teacher of art is employed to give the work.

Plan 3 has been developed in Denver, Colorado. The work of the elementary school is based on an elementary study of the industries. In the junior high school art work is required in all grades.

¹ The general arts plan will be outlined in detail in Part II of this article. For a complete outline of the industrial arts plan for the elementary school, the following is recommended: Leon Loyal Winslow, *Art and Industrial Arts*. University of the State of New York, Bulletin No. 761. Albany, New York: University of the State of New York Press, 1922. Pp. 64.

Grade	PLAN 1	PLAN 2	PLAN 3	PLAN 4
K	Required Elect.			
1	General or Industrial Arts	General Arts	Industrial Arts	General Arts
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7	General Arts	General Arts	Home Arts	General Arts
8				
9	General Arts Fine. Industrial. Commercial. History of Art	Drawing, Design, Crafts	Industrial Civic Art	Voc. Guidance
10				
11				
12				
		History and Survey of Art	Drawing (Pt.), Commercial, Stage, Home, Crafts Appreciation	Fine, Ind., Commercial, Household History of Art

FIG. 1.—Comparative plans showing organization of art education in the public school. The work to be required of all students is placed on the left side of the heavy vertical line in each plan. This work is "general" in scope. The elective work is placed in each case on the right side of the vertical line and represents the specialized or semi-specialized work in art education.

It is offered for six periods of six weeks each during each year, one period of which includes a study of an art-craft. The work of the seventh grade is based on the art needs of the home, with a six-week course in pottery. In the eighth grade the work is based on the art needs of industry, and the craft of bookbinding is studied for six weeks. In the ninth grade the work is based on the civic needs for art and includes a study of the metal craft. The work of the senior high school is elective. It includes courses in drawing and painting, pictorial composition and commercial design, art for the home and community, interior decoration, costume design, garden designing and civic art, art for dramatics, advanced art-craft work, and art appreciation.

Plan 4 has a general arts scheme as a basis for the work in the elementary school and the junior high school. In the junior high school the general arts course is offered as a required subject for all students during the first two years. In the third year it is required of students planning to major in art or household arts and is an advised elective for all other students. In the senior high school the art courses are organized as specialized elective subjects. They are planned for students who desire to specialize in the field of art and to devote a maximum of time to this subject. These courses, however, should be open to all students qualified to enter them. Many students elect advanced courses in art for the added interest and pleasure that they give to their school life. Such students should be encouraged to study art even though they may not wish to make art work a profession.

In the elementary school approximately one-tenth of the total school time is devoted to art work, including drawing, design, handwork of various kinds, and art appreciation—in other words, to the administration of an effective general arts course. It is recommended that as much time as possible be devoted to the general arts course in the first two years of the junior high school. The same type of course is also recommended, including the subjects mentioned, but more advanced and possessing a broader and richer background and generally on a higher level of educational experience than the work of the elementary school.

In the third year of the junior high school it is recommended that the general arts course be continued. This third-year course would

have as its chief purpose *vocational guidance* in the sense that its aim is to give pupils an opportunity to experiment with the different phases and media of art and to decide on the kind of art work they prefer or for which their talent best fits them. From this course the student may pass into the specialized courses of the senior high school. Specialized courses of various kinds are to be offered during each year of the senior high school.

The special art courses would have as their objective the training of students in industrial and commercial arts, in household arts, in fine arts (painting, architecture, and elementary sculpture), and in advanced history and survey of art. One of the important purposes of these specialized courses is the further development of experiences and appreciation in the broad field of art.

In large schools, like the Washington Irving High School of New York City, where there are many students desiring to specialize, there should be separate courses in these four kinds of art work in each of the last three years of the high school. In schools where the number of students desiring to specialize in art is relatively small, the four types of art courses may be combined in one course for each year with more individual attention given to special students and more directed outside work required of the student.

Broad scope of modern art courses.—In planning art courses for the high school, it is necessary to keep in mind the fourfold educational contribution of the modern sequence of art work. The well-rounded art course of today may be classified as follows with respect to the types of learning afforded the pupil: *drawing, the graphic experience; design, the ornamental experience; construction, the motor experience; and appreciation, the mental experience.* All of these activities are of value to the individual in our twentieth-century life and will be more and more valuable as the present school policy of the education of the masses in taste and artistic appreciation gains a real foothold. There are many hopeful signs which lead one to believe that the great American public of tomorrow will have much higher standards of taste and much higher regard for the factor of art in life than the present generation.

[To be concluded]

STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN HIGH-SCHOOL RESPONSIBILITIES

H. M. HORST

West High School, Akron, Ohio

The West High School, Akron, Ohio, has about fifteen hundred students and fifty-six teachers. It draws most of its students from the chief residential districts of the city, though a large number come from a semi-foreign section. It is organized on the departmental plan and is conducted under a liberal school administration which gives the teachers freedom to use their initiative in motivating and carrying on their work. The activities of the department of social science in student participation give evidence of the possibilities of classroom activities when confidence is extended by the school authorities to the teachers and by them in turn to the students.

The idea of permitting the students at the West High School to participate in school responsibilities had its origin in the ninth-year classes in community civics. There the "migratory" and "gregarious" tendencies of the students were provided for by allowing them to work in committee groups in the investigation of local institutions and their problems. It was soon found that the school—the community nearest at hand—presents the most practical problems for study and solution. When it became evident that many school problems are beyond the ability of ninth-year students, the committee activities permeated the entire department and formed a laboratory for the social-science classes. Social and economic problems were studied at first hand, and the students engaged in activities for their solution. These activities had their origin in the needs of the community and the school. They were made a part of the regular work, supplementing the textbook study. Each student was allowed to choose from a large number of activities the one in which he was most interested and in which he thought he could do the best work. Emphasis was placed on activity rather than on organization. The students choosing the same project

worked in one committee under a leader, selected sometimes by the members of the committee but usually by the teacher in charge. The leader assigned to each committee member a particular phase of the work and held him responsible for results.

The major committees, which meet permanent needs or render constant service, are organized each semester. They are as follows: student advisers, student tutors, senior leaders for civic and vocational trips, and committee on investigation of stolen or lost articles.

In the case of the minor committees the responsibilities are not as great, and less constant application is required. They usually meet temporary needs or render special service. In the past they have been grouped under the following headings:

Committees supplementing the courses of study:

- Vocational conferences with the Freshmen
- Scrap-books for newspaper and magazine articles
- The listing of magazine articles for class use

Committees aiding school administration:

- Care of the lawn
- Conservation of lights
- Comparison of grades
- Tardiness
- School spirit

Committees serving the students and their homes:

- Study of wage-earning boys and girls
- Home relations

Student advisers.—The committee of student advisers is composed of from three to five of the most reliable and influential boys and girls of the upper grades. They are chosen by the teachers of the social-science classes with the advice and consent of the principal and other members of the faculty. This committee is the result of a conviction that the students should have an opportunity to discuss their problems with someone more nearly their equal than either a school administrator or a teacher can ever be.

Each student adviser has a definite time and place to meet those in need; helping others thus becomes the chief business at that particular time and is not looked upon as a mere incident in an overcrowded program. Moreover, having the advantage of common

experiences with the one whom he is helping, the student adviser is likely to get the student's point of view and to understand his difficulties. Pupils often reveal to each other facts and conditions that they would never tell their teachers.

All pupils in need of advice of any kind are urged to consult a member of the committee. The teachers report the names of those who seem discouraged, friendless, or unable to adjust themselves. With the co-operation of the principal, the dean of girls, and the home visitor, the committee has been able to untangle home difficulties, adjust relations between students, assist pupils in finding themselves, and aid new students in their strange environment.

The results have been better than could have been expected for the first year of trial. The principal's office has been relieved of much detail work; home relations have been improved; and the committee members have been given valuable experience in human engineering. The chairman of the first committee, a member of the senior class, in an address before the Lions Club, an organization of business men, gave the following illustrations as typical of the possibilities in this kind of work:

One of the most interesting cases that came before our committee was that of a young girl who, as her teacher reported, did not seem to be able to concentrate. Her mother died a year ago, leaving this girl, with three other children, to the care of her father. She was the oldest but did not have her father's co-operation in advising and caring for the younger children. As a result, she and her father did not get along well together, and, with domestic problems foremost in her mind, it seemed impossible for her to master her school work. She needed the moral influence of an older and stronger girl. This she found in our committee. She was advised to have a talk with her father and to try to come to an understanding. The plan was successful, and an agreement was reached. The last report of the teacher shows that she is doing excellent work and has almost completely overcome her former absent-minded thoughtlessness.

Another case was that of a boy who was failing in geometry. During an interview with one of the boys on our committee, it was discovered that he had little interest in school life or activities. It was at the beginning of the football season, and we succeeded in interesting him in coming out for practice. While this did not help him in any of his studies, it aroused his interest in the school. From football his interest extended to other activities, and it was not long before he was taking a lively interest in school life, including his studies. He seemed to take new courage and heart. He is making excellent grades at the present time.

One little girl was continually bothering her teacher with talking in class. During an interview, we discovered that she thought her teacher had a grudge against her, and naturally she had nothing but a grudge to return. We showed her that she was mistaken, and she resolved to stop her annoyance. The last report shows that she has made a genuine effort to overcome a very bad habit, and her teacher has practically no trouble with her.

There was a girl in the school who was entirely too free with the use of cosmetics. Her face resembled a wax doll, completely destroying her own naturally sweet appearance. We tactfully approached the subject of paint and powder and found that she had never realized just how much such things cheapened her. She was actually grateful for our interest, and her mother thanked the committee and approved the big-sister idea in high school.

The supervisor of case work in the Local Charity Organization Society, an instructor in the University of Akron, writes the following concerning this work:

The senior advisory activities at the West High School have been of increasing interest to me as I have had an opportunity to study them from the reports of those pupils of my acquaintance who have been connected with the work. I believe that the experiment is based on sound principles, and I feel confident that great benefits are accruing to the school as a whole and to the students doing the work as well as to those to whom direct aid is given. The principle of the plan, the method of approaching the students, and the process of adjusting the students to their environment are all essentially the same as in our work, only we usually get the individuals much later when a change in attitudes and habits is more difficult to effect; moreover, we represent outsiders who must win their confidence and get their point of view. The senior advisers have the students' point of view and are not looked upon as "outsiders." Of course, they are inexperienced and need much guidance, but under the direction of those with a breadth of view and understanding much good will be accomplished.

Personally, I feel that the placing of these responsibilities has done more to develop the idea of greater loyalty, the value of giving service without reward, and the assuming of responsibilities in the few students who have come under my observation than any other training that they received in school. It has brought home to them a new sense of the fitness or unfitness of thoughtless behavior on the part of high-school students. Such work will aid in the building up of the best esprit de corps among the students and between the students and faculty. I sincerely hope that you will continue and enlarge these student activities.

Student tutors.—Each semester about fifteen of the best boy students and twenty-five of the best girl students of the upper classes offer their services as tutors without hope of any reward

except a clearer knowledge of the subject taught and a consciousness of having done something worth while.

The student tutors are a by-product and a direct outgrowth of the work of the student advisers. It was found that a certain girl needed help in physical geography. A senior girl at once offered her services. The good news spread like fire. Now the weaker students may have regular and systematic help from the better students. S.O.S. (special help) calls flowed in from teachers and pupils, a total of seventy in one semester. A definite plan of procedure was adopted. The department heads were asked to recommend upper-class boys and girls who were strong students in their departments and who appeared to have the teaching instinct. With a few exceptions, those recommended were willing to serve as tutors. The names of students in need of special help and considered worthy by their teachers were sent to the committee in charge in regular form, the details of each case being supplied.

The committee compared the class programs of the tutors with those of the students needing help and selected common open periods and definite places for the daily lessons, which were usually thirty minutes in length. At any period in the day groups of two, three, or four could be seen in segregated sections of the halls or in vacant classrooms in any part of the building, and the diligence with which they worked was a surprise to all. Naturally, a few students voluntarily discontinued receiving help, while a few others were dropped for want of proper effort, but, of those continuing, fifty students, or 85 per cent, did satisfactory work. It is reasonable to assume that, with more thorough supervision, more careful selection and better training of the tutors, and more extensive publicity of the merits of their work, a still higher degree of efficiency can be obtained and a far greater number of students reached.

The tutors generally agree that tutoring aids them in their own study of the subject; in some cases, however, they maintain that it interferes with the preparation of their other lessons. A questionnaire which was sent to the teachers regarding the effect of tutoring on the preparation of the tutors' own lessons shows that of a total of thirty-two students, eight were aided in their lessons and two were hindered. In twenty-two cases there was no noticeable effect.

A question may arise as to how the students can be expected to teach effectively with no special training in pedagogy. We might say that many of our best students have their powers of observation trained in school and that they absorb the methods of effective teaching from their better teachers. The following comments have been made by some of the teachers who know the work:

I am "sold on the proposition" for several reasons:

First, I had one student in Physics XI B who was tutored in making up work because of illness and who raised his grade from D to C by means of this help. The student would have degenerated into an F but for the help, I am firmly convinced.

Second, experience showed me in this case that the tutorship was the means of increased knowledge of the subject on the part of the tutor, for he paid me the left-handed compliment of saying that it had given him more knowledge of the subject-matter covered than he had previously obtained under my instruction.

Third, I firmly believe that such a policy of tutorship, if continued in our school, will make for better citizenship and will tend to replace the present tendency toward selfish promotion of individual interests with an interest in the other fellow's welfare and a willingness to assist in his advancement.

Answering the argument that student tutorship is inferior to instruction by the teacher, I want to say that it is just an addition to the regular instruction in the classroom. I do not feel that a teacher's ability is at all brought into question. In a great many cases, additional help from a student tutor will give the student obtaining it the point of view of the tutor who has worked out the problem from his own plane.

During the fifth week a girl entered my IX A algebra class with no work beyond IX B. A Senior tutored her three times a week for more than a month, and at the end of that time she passed an examination with a grade of B, at the same time keeping up with her regular class work, always with the outside help.

In IX B algebra, one boy who did failing work during the first and second weeks had enough help from a student tutor to pass his final examination with a mark of 100.

Student tutors are often capable of rendering more efficient help than the teacher, having more recently learned the subject and remembering the difficulties.

On the practical side, I would say that student tutoring has proved of inestimable value to many of my classes and has prevented many failures. It is not a remedy for all cases, however, as some are hopeless or nearly so. Nothing is perfect. There is always effort expended for which we seemingly get very small compensation, and there are evidences of this in student tutoring as elsewhere. But to me that waste does not lessen the value of the organization.

Senior leaders for civic and vocational trips.—The committees of senior leaders are of two kinds, those leading Freshmen on their community civics trips through the city and those leading divisions of their own class on trips for vocational studies.

The committee of leaders of Freshmen is organized to provide for the "gregarious" and "migratory" tendencies of ninth-grade pupils and to develop leadership and responsibility on the part of the leaders. The committee is composed of eight or ten reliable senior boys and girls who become responsible for the freshman groups on their weekly trips to the various industries and institutions of the city. These trips are taken after school or during the last period of the day. The senior leaders are authorized to arrange their own plans with the institutions visited, subject to the teacher's approval. All Freshmen who have written permission from their parents may join the groups, which are usually composed of from four to ten students. The students are requested to make oral reports in class of what they observe on their trips and to make a written report each six weeks to the leader. The leader grades the papers and gives them to the civics teacher. The places visited include factories, hospitals, children's home, bakeries, milk-supply stations, markets, open-air schools, continuation schools, the University of Akron, and many local historic places. Labor conditions, relations between employer and employee, need for labor-saving machinery, and safety devices are studied in general. Where food supply is concerned, sanitation, care and preservation, and the course of the food from producer to consumer are also studied. In all visits the causes of the high cost of living are kept in mind. About fifty of these visits are made each semester. They are discontinued during the short days of the winter months.

The classes in industrial history and economics are under the guidance and leadership of one of their own members while making their visits to the industrial concerns of the city. The members of each class are asked to elect a student whose instructions they are willing to follow. The teacher gives the leader a list of the institutions to be visited. The leader then makes definite arrangements with these institutions, becomes responsible for all that takes place on the trips, checks the class attendance, and reports the absences

to the teacher. The members of the class are graded on the reports that they give of what they observe, and the leader is graded largely on his initiative and his ability to assume responsibility. The school program is so arranged that these classes meet during the last period of the forenoon session or during the last period of the afternoon session, so that the classes have more than one period for their visits without interfering with other classes. The average number of students in these groups is from twelve to fifteen. The boys and girls visit on separate days. In this way the teacher can plan lessons for class discussion appropriate for boys on the days that the girls are visiting and lessons appropriate for girls on the days that the boys are visiting.

These groups sometimes visit the leading men and women in the various occupations of the city for consultation concerning qualifications for success. The teacher selects a group of six or eight worthy citizens and, after arousing their interest in the work, suggests their names to the group leaders who assume responsibility for the visits. Each of these groups has a secretary who keeps a record of the facts obtained and the counsel received for the benefit of other students.

Committee on investigation of stolen or lost articles.—The committee on investigation of stolen or lost articles was an outgrowth of numerous reports that many valuables, ranging from overcoats and bicycles to fountain pens, were being stolen. A class in social problems made a study of the facts in connection with their study of criminology. A desk and a chair in a very accessible room were provided for the committee's use. Morning, noon, and afternoon a committee member was at the desk to list all articles found or reported stolen, including information as to the time and place and the name of the loser or finder. Thus it became possible to make a report of all articles merely misplaced but reported stolen. Other members of the committee were responsible for advertising in the halls and in the home rooms the service rendered and for the return of stray books to the proper rooms. About \$500 worth of mislaid articles were returned last year. The members of the committee thus had an opportunity to show their initiative, to develop leadership, to bear responsibility, to render service, and, last of all, to

prove a practical point in criminology: the West High School has fewer criminals than reports indicated, and most articles reported stolen have been mislaid.

Committees supplementing the courses of study.—A Senior has as his project the arranging of a series of vocational conferences for ninth-grade students, conducted by the leading men and women in the various trades and professions of the city. The student receives from his teacher in social science the names of a number of responsible men and women in the various vocations. He then arranges for interviews with them in which the conferences are planned and assumes full responsibility for the proceedings. These conferences are held regularly for the Freshmen during the assembly periods for the students of the upper grades. Attendance is optional. Only those students are present at a conference who are interested in the particular vocation under discussion. Thus the conference usually takes the form of a round-table discussion.

A number of students are responsible for the collection of newspaper articles and short magazine articles relating to the subjects studied in class. These are collected in scrap-books and arranged alphabetically according to subjects for the use of future classes. Another group issues a bi-weekly bulletin listing the longer articles in the current magazines that may be used to supplement the textbooks. The name of the magazine, the name of the article, the name of the author, and the number of pages devoted to the article are all given. These bulletins are kept on file, and thus courses of study are kept up to date, each class in turn contributing the best available material in the current literature.

Committees aiding school administration: (a) the lawn committee.—The lawn committee was organized to improve a condition which resulted from the presence of a number of hucksters near the school and the accompanying accumulation of paper. The leader of the group divided the lawn into six parts and held each member of the committee responsible for the appearance of one part. He also induced the city authorities to place two metal receptacles for waste paper in front of the lawn. These have aided greatly in improving the situation.

b) Committee on the conservation of lights.—The committee on the conservation of lights is the result of an unwarranted suspicion

that there is a great waste due to an unnecessary use of lights. It happened that an article in a local newspaper regarding excessive light bills in public buildings aroused the committee to greater effort. The lights in use were counted three times a day, and reports were made for each of the four floors separately. The following is a condensed report: (1) number of lights in the building, 500; (2) average number of lights in use: dark days, 89; light days, 47; (3) number of lights used excessively, few, if any. The practical suggestion was made that in the large rooms the lights might be arranged in different circuits so that those on the darker side of the room might be used while those on the lighter side are turned off.

c) *Committee on comparison of grades.*—A committee has made a comparison of the grades of American students and students of foreign parentage. Any student was considered foreign if one of his parents was foreign-born. The results were slightly in favor of the foreign students.

d) *Committee on tardiness.*—The committee on tardiness was composed of five boys and three girls. To each member were assigned four home rooms for the reduction of tardiness. The committee members had conferences with the tardy pupils in their respective rooms, studied the causes of tardiness, and exhibited each week on large bulletin boards a graphic comparison of the rooms. The school had an average record of .4 per cent of tardiness during the last two months of the year. Persuasion was the only method used in most cases. Penalties were inflicted by the authorities in only the most chronic cases.

e) *Committee on school spirit.*—The committee on school spirit, consisting of two boys and one girl, was organized to revive the spirit of the school within ten days and then to maintain a high standard. It happened that a newspaper article criticizing the spirit in the school appeared just in time to fire the zeal of the committee. A threefold program was planned—the organization of a rooters' club, special assembly programs, and daily "pep" remarks on the bulletin board. The results were better than anyone expected. School authorities, the same local paper, and all concerned said within a week that the school spirit was second to none.

Committees serving the students and their homes: (a) *Committee on a study of wage-earning boys and girls.*—The pupils of a class in

community civics and economics made a study of the money earned by the students who had withdrawn from school within the last six years. Each student brought to class such first-hand information as he was able to obtain. This project was a part of a study of "The Value of an Education in Dollars and Cents." A brief summary shows that the cases of 253 boys and 29 girls were examined and that the average monthly income of the boys was \$73; of the girls, \$69. These findings will be compared with the findings of an alumni committee which is making a study of the incomes of the graduates of the school. The value of the project consists not only in a comparison of the earning powers of what the students call "quitters" and "stickers" but also in the practice in gathering and compiling valuable facts and figures.

A study was also made of the various part-time occupations engaged in by the boys and girls at the West High School and the money earned by these students. A brief report is given in Table I. The information is valuable to both teachers and students in showing the effort some students make to attend school.

TABLE I*

	Boys	Girls	Total
Number working.....	187	37	224
Number earning \$100 or more per month.....	6	1	7
Number earning from \$80 to \$100 per month.....	19	1	20
Number earning \$1,000 or more per year.....	3	1	4
Number earning from \$500 to \$1,000 per year.....	3	2	5
Number working 150 hours or more per month.....	16	7	23
Number working from 100 to 150 hours per month.....	32	1	33

*The earnings are difficult to report because in many cases employment in different parts of the year is at very different rates, and in some cases students work for only one or two months.

b) *The committee on home relations.*—The committee on home relations is composed of three students, usually two girls and one boy, appointed by the teachers of the social-science classes. Its purpose has been well expressed by the first chairman of the committee, a senior girl, in an address before the Lions Club. She said:

Since the home and the school are the two main factors in a child's life, there is great necessity for sympathetic co-operation between them. The ladies of the Home and School League are doing their part representing the home, and it is the hope of this committee to make the part the school plays

more effective by organizing the work that has heretofore been done at random. We are asking the home rooms to communicate with the homes of those pupils who are seriously ill or injured or where death has come.

It seems that no other institutions have been so negligent of their unfortunates as the school. Factories have their welfare departments that call on the sick. Churches have paid callers who visit the homes regularly. Sunday schools have their home departments, and the work done by fraternal orders is familiar to all. At school it has been left to mere chance whether an unfortunate will be remembered in any way. Many home rooms will remember those in need of sympathy if only they are informed of the cases. Herein lies the purpose of this committee. We are notified by the office of all cases of absence of more than three days. We call these pupils by telephone, write to them, or visit their homes personally. Pupils who are seriously ill are reported to the home room, which then assumes full responsibility for the case. Sometimes flowers or letters of sympathy are sent, but more often personal visits to the home are made, which count for more than all of the rest. A few cases will suffice to illustrate our way of working.

One of our boys recently broke his ankle while practicing football, and the West High School was ready to show him that it had his welfare in mind. We at once notified his home room, and several pupils went to see him. One of his friends took his lessons to him and helped him to prepare them. The boy was very grateful. I think, however, that his mother was more grateful. The father had lost a limb several months before, and it was hard for her to wait on both invalids at the same time. We offered to send an automobile for the boy as soon as he was able to return to school. She thanked us but said that a neighbor would take care of that.

A freshman girl had been at the West High School only a week when she became seriously ill and was taken to Cleveland to a hospital. We at once notified the home room. Immediately the pupils collected four dollars for flowers which were sent that same evening. With great joy in her heart, the girl received the flowers just before she went into the operating room. The home room could do nothing more as the girl temporarily lost her sight, her hearing, and her speech. We called her home almost every day by telephone, thus keeping in touch with her progress. When the girl returned home, much improved, she received notes from many of her classmates. Her mother was very grateful for the committee's interest in the child and the family.

Another activity in which the committee engages is that of "auto service." Pupils who have automobiles call for those who are less fortunate and find it hard to get to school on stormy mornings. One of the boys lost a leg some years ago. Another student, a senior girl, was disabled when a child by infantile paralysis. Both have been walking to school until recently on crutches, the boy coming three miles. At present, upper-class students bring them both to school in private automobiles. Because of this "auto service," our disabled pupils are able to participate in all outside school affairs.

The advantages of this work to the students who serve on this committee are very evident. It breaks down so-called class distinction; it develops human sympathy; it develops the use of tact and gives the girl who wants to take up social service work later in life a real foundation for her career.

The results of all of these activities from the administrative point of view are given in a letter from the principal in which the following are mentioned as valuable services:

1. Diminished failures in freshman and sophomore classes.
2. Lessened the burden of parental complaints to the office concerning stolen articles.
3. Kept the grounds free from debris and unsightly refuse.
4. Created a spirit of helpful co-operation among the students.
5. Helped to increase the feeling of friendliness of the public toward the school.
6. "Sold" the idea of the project plan to the teachers of the social science department.
7. Developed a desirable initiative among the students.

In conclusion, it should be said that progress in these activities must be slow. Pupils, like adults, must learn gradually to assume responsibilities. Some will never learn. Some pupils will choose committees not suited to their interests or abilities. All will err in judgment at times. Some will abuse privileges. Mistakes will be made in choosing leaders. Teachers will place confidence in the wrong students. These are, however, real problems of our social fabric, and the real strength of the experiment lies in overcoming them.

This work, in no sense a substitute for our traditional education, is merely an effort to meet a need in our educational procedure; it leads pupils to feel the need of improvement in the conditions of their environment and gives them an opportunity to develop initiative and leadership in supplying that need. The experiment is the result of a plan that began by sending ninth-grade pupils out into the world of affairs as a part of their preparation for life and that developed into bringing the life of the outside world into the school. Thus situations typical of real life are found in school.

Moreover, in the solving of these problems by committees, the students naturally classify themselves into two groups, leaders and

followers. Leaders will develop whether we plan for them or not. If they are not chosen by school authorities or elected by the student body, they will be self-imposed for the promotion of personal or special group interests. It is the privilege of teachers to direct in useful lines those who can lead and those who follow. By this plan good leaders receive recognition and credit for their leadership, and those who follow well receive credit for being good followers. Thus another effort is made to provide for a great need in our social organization.

The social side of education is especially emphasized in this work. In so far as these activities are able to render associations among students more sympathetic, wholesome, and helpful, these associations assume a real educational value rather than provide an opportunity for good or evil, depending on the pleasure of the students.

This experiment also has a bearing on the choice of vocations. While no effort has been made to study the effect of the activities on the vocations chosen by the students participating, several students have expressed themselves as having received practical experience in their chosen vocations or as having changed their choice of life-work because of their experiences. One girl, after tutoring for a semester in her senior year, changed her choice of vocations and is now in college preparing to teach. Another girl, a Senior, has decided to become a teacher of mathematics as a result of her tutoring. Two others who had intended to enter social service work say that their activities on the committee on home relations gave them much practical preparation for their chosen field of work. A boy, the "star" debater of the school, received his early training in public speaking by "selling" the results of the work of his committee to the student body in assembly.

In school work, as in the industries, efficiency depends largely on the by-products. In this work we see class distinction and the promotion of selfish interests broken down in a measure. Public opinion is aroused in favor of the schools. School administration is aided by the hearty co-operation of the students, and a threefold education is the result, that of "the head, the hand, and the heart."

SUPERVISED STUDY IN ENGLISH

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The definition and description of supervised study as employed in the English department of the University High School of the University of Chicago are inextricably bound up with the several aims of the several kinds of activity within the department. It is the purpose of this study to describe the procedure in each of these activities. Preliminary to this there is presented a brief consideration of the objectives toward the realization of which the procedures are employed. If one repeats and reconsiders the dictionary definition of study as quoted by H. C. Morrison in the first of the series of articles on this general subject—"act or process of acquiring by one's own efforts knowledge or information of a particular subject"—with some emphasis on the phrase "by one's own efforts," one will, on examining the study procedures here described, conclude that they lie well within the definition.

Three types of study activity are discernible within the various levels—in some cases concurrently—in the English department. One of these is the acquisition, through understanding, application, and practice, of those principles of usage and composition, both oral and written, which are generally recognized among cultivated people as correct, graceful, and effective. A second activity is that of general reading for exploration, that is, for the accretion of contacts, for appreciation, which includes the idea of relating literature to life and enriching the reader's experience, and for pure recreative enjoyment. A third activity is that of reading with a definite purpose in mind, such as the preparation of a report, the organization of the material collected, and its composition for presentation by the student in oral or written form.

In language study, carried on chiefly at the seventh- and eighth-grade levels, the purpose of the instruction is, first, to provide the

¹ Henry C. Morrison, "Supervised Study," *School Review*, XXXI (October, 1923), 589.

pupils with an understanding of the functional relationships of words, phrases, and sentences, sufficient to guide them in correct practice. There is no intention to teach grammar for its own sake nor to introduce the children to the correction of errors not current nor likely to be made in their immediate activity. The instruction undertakes, further, to furnish exercises, under natural stimuli and conditions, of the principles of correct usage involved in the classroom activity, exercises of a suitable nature and of sufficient quantity to induce the formation of commendable habits of speech and writing.

In order to avoid waste of time and effort, too often in the past applied expensively where not needed, and because of the considerable variance in pupil powers and shortcomings in speech and writing, the instruction in this material is highly individualized. In the beginning, each pupil is tested in order to determine his present knowledge and power, and auxiliary evidence of current practice is gathered from the papers which he writes for subjects other than English. In this way the individual need of each pupil is determined and recorded.

The pupil, having been apprised of his characteristic errors and convinced of the necessity of correcting them, is introduced in turn to the principles involved. The presentation of each principle is followed by practice exercises until he shows under testing his understanding of the principle and his mastery of the correct practice. Further observance of the correct usage then becomes his responsibility and personal obligation in all composition work, not only in English but in all subjects involving expressional activities.

The principles involved in the correction of such errors as are common to all of the members of a class or to any considerable number of the pupils are presented by the instructor in general lessons to the entire class or to the groups needing the instruction. The presentation of the principles, together with illustrations of their use, may be strengthened by means of similar material from the textbook. During the use of such textbook material and during the subsequent period of practice the pupils engage in study under the supervision of the instructor. The teacher moves quietly about the room while the pupils are studying or practicing their exercises and

gives supplementary explanations, repeats the information already given, where necessary, checks the correctness of the exercises completed, administers tests to the pupils who are ready for them—in short, offers the stimulation or guidance that each pupil requires. It can be readily surmised that in such a procedure some pupils will progress more rapidly than others. Since the work is highly individualized and there is a record of each individual need, any pupil can attack a new problem as soon as he has satisfactorily mastered the first. If it is desired to make a group presentation from time to time, the pupils who finish a general problem ahead of their classmates are permitted to read from the literature content of the course. Books are at all times available in the classroom for this purpose.

The classroom thus becomes the workroom of from twenty to thirty pupils, each at work on a project in the successful completion of which he may need from time to time the instructor's assistance, either in straightening out his thinking or in restimulating his will to progress. The functions of the instructor are stimulation, sympathetic guidance and explanation, and constant observation of individual progress. There is no recitation, no group testing of results. The unit of instruction is the individual; the unit of content, the principle he must learn to observe. Progress is determined through testing the individual and observing his subsequent unsupervised work.

In the classes in literature, including most of the extensive reading done in the earlier years and much of the activity in classics, contemporary literature, and drama, open to Juniors and Seniors, many periods are devoted to pupil-reading for enjoyment, appreciation, and enrichment of experience. The reading content in all such courses is divided into units of instruction for convenience in presentation and direction. These units may be based on literary types, such as drama, epic, essay, and short story, or on subject-matter, such as nature, patriotism, animal life, or plays of character and plays of thesis. Experience has determined approximately the period of time to be devoted to any given unit. Ordinarily a unit of reading covers from six to twelve weeks of instruction. Of this time, a considerable amount, varying with the nature of the content and the level of the pupils, is devoted to silent reading

in the classroom. A classroom equipped for such activity has large tables stacked with books relating to the current unit of study. There is an advantage in having books on the tables instead of on shelves or in bookcases. They are more accessible and more inviting than if carefully placed on shelves. Their very accessibility stimulates investigation and trial. A further valuable item of equipment is movable chairs which may be lined up for a presentation situation or grouped into cozy reading circles. One classroom is fortunately provided with inviting window seats. During a period of reading for discovery, enjoyment, and appreciation, the pupils are free to sit anywhere in the room, in any informal fashion. The classroom assumes the atmosphere of a home library, in which the boys and girls are free to find and enjoy the good literature which has been prepared for them out of the richness of human experience. Conversation is permitted but never becomes boisterous. Discipline is a matter of genuine courtesy in a natural social situation. In any one unit there are more than twice as many volumes as pupils enrolled. The reading is supervised in that the selections have been chosen in wide variety from the best literature and in that the instructor, an unintrusive observer, is on hand to answer questions, to suggest enjoyable reading, and to discuss the pupils' discoveries with them, either individually or in groups, whenever they feel impelled to talk. In this informal activity the young people come to know literature as a rich storehouse of human experience and a source of recreation which stimulates thought and feeling and expands the individual horizon. The best measure of the fruit of this activity is to be found in the free and natural interest in literature which results and which can be observed in the pupils' attitudes as expressed in the classroom and overheard in the school corridors.

A third activity in the English department in which supervised study is employed is the preparation of oral or written reports on the content in literature or community life. In the case of literature this is usually in connection with one of the various return activities by which the effect of the study on the pupil is judged. The amount of time devoted to pure undirected discovery or exploration varies with the content, the unit, and the level of instruction. During the period of exploration on the part of the pupils the instructor is

usually using portions of the class periods to read aloud selections which the pupils are unlikely to find themselves. Considerable attention at the beginning of a unit is given to advertising, through presentations by the instructor, the various notable pieces of literature available in the unit. The time devoted to these activities is from two or three days to two or three weeks. Lyric poetry is quickly advertised and explored; plays require the longest time. At the close of the exploration and advertisement period some purpose or direction is given to subsequent reading in the unit. Among the return devices for which the pupils prepare in the supervised-study periods following the exploration are round-table discussions, oral reports, pupil-reading and advertising, dramatizations and the like, formal written reports and studies, and original literary creations. The study period allowed for these varies once more with the nature of the undertaking: one period is sufficient time in which to prepare for round-table discussions, while the writing of a formal study of character or of the works of a playwright may require from five to ten periods.

The pupils choose their subjects for study in personal conferences with the instructor during the periods of silent reading. An idea of the individual character and the wide range of these subjects may be gained from the following description of the return reports of the recently finished epic unit in classics (English 3-4) in a section made up of twenty-seven boys and girls. Two girls wrote an original epic based on a legend of the Yosemite Valley. Two girls reported the story of Sigurd, the Volsung, one making ten pen-and-ink illustrations, the other planning and telling the episode illustrated by each drawing. One boy drew on the blackboard a map on which he traced the wanderings of Aeneas. One boy prepared and gave orally a report on the gods and goddesses of the Greek epics, using only the epics themselves as sources of information. A girl composed an original play of Indian life, using the verse meter of *Hiawatha*. Another girl wrote on nature as seen in the *Idylls of the King*. Two boys planned and enacted an original dramatization of episodes from the *Song of Roland*. One boy wrote a character analysis of Drake from Noyes's epic of that name. Two girls wrote an original epic poem, forty typewritten pages in length, on the

legend of the lost continent of Atlantis. A girl wrote an original non-epic narrative poem, retelling a short story. Four boys planned and presented seven tableaux from various epics. A girl wrote a scenario of Gareth and Lynette, having read voluntarily a textbook on scenario technique in preparation; another, an original play, using characters from the *Idylls of the King*; another, a libretto in verse based on a folk-legend; and still another, an epic episode from the conquest of Peru. A boy gave a fifteen-minute report on the boats used by primitive people, illustrating his talk with blackboard drawings. A girl wrote a dramatization of the story of Geraint and Enid. A boy made a comparative study of the *Idylls of the King* and the *Iliad* to show why one was but epic material and the other a great epic. Another boy presented a character analysis of Hugh Glass from Neihardt's epic of that name; still another, a scenario on Neihardt's *The Song of Three Friends*. Of the twenty-seven pupils here represented, twelve did all of their work in the classroom in a supervised-study situation; fifteen carried their work home or to the study hall. As no home work is required, those who applied extra-classroom time and produced the greater results did so out of pure intellectual interest, generated in the classroom during supervised study.

When the reports are of a more uniform nature, requiring similar methods of organization, such as character studies of Macbeth or Lady Macbeth, the instructor outlines the method in a presentation to the entire group. During the days of preparation for a series of such reports, the instructor moves about the room, giving such aid as is needed, either in explaining obscure passages or in suggesting improvements in organization or in supplying necessary restimulation or supplementary sources of information. The instructor is the interested guide and observer of the working students. He is neither an intruder nor a prop for the lame. The work materials are in the books which are a necessary part of the classroom equipment. The test of the gain of the students is found in the value of the reports, whether given orally to the class or to the instructor as written themes.

A writers' class is maintained in the University High School for those pupils who wish to receive instruction, stimulation, and criti-

cism in creative literature. Much of their literary output is actually produced in the classroom; all of it is criticized and polished under conditions of supervised study. The instructor in this class is the stimulating companion of the writers and their friendly critic. A measure of their success is the quality of the literary product in a magazine which they publish from time to time.

It should be noted that the supervised study in the English department of the University High School is in no way a preparation of an assigned lesson for recitation in the second half of the period or in some subsequent period. Lessons are not assigned from day to day. Tasks of composition practice or of literary investigation are discovered for the pupils or by the pupils; the boys and girls, having chosen their jobs, work on them together in a laboratory or library situation until all are satisfactorily completed. The teacher recognizes the completion of the task, determines the mastery of the principle and practice, and observes the progress while directing the study. The results of the efforts of the department in stimulating reading among the pupils may be estimated by examining the reading record cards which are kept by all of the pupils in the school and filed in the English office. The more formal media for examining results, aside from individual tests on definite materials, are written reports, oral reports, and round-table discussions. No less valuable and significant evidence of success is to be found in the numerous individual studies, highly voluntary in nature, which are made by the pupils in literature every year, showing real and varied intellectual and artistic interests.

The question may properly be asked whether there do not arise from time to time problem cases of pupils who fail to fall in line with the supervised-study program. Such cases do arise, but in the opinion of the instructors who have been using the method for about four years and who had previously had considerable experience with the assigned lesson and recitation methods, they arise much less frequently and with less resistance to solution. For those problem cases which show an incapacity for sustained application the following remedies are found effective. First, showing the pupil his own attention profiles, taken on several consecutive days, frequently so convinces him of his undesirable study habits that he voluntarily

seeks to correct them. A second remedy in the reading situations lies in finding for the pupil or helping him to find more interesting reading material than he has yet discovered. The field of English literature is so rich that in any given type there is usually to be found some excellent selection with a direct appeal. It is frequently helpful to make a contact, not at first apparent to the pupil, between his experience and that recorded in a chosen literary unit. This is easily done in a short conversation with the boy or girl at the book table.

When the problem case is diagnosed as emotional or volitional,¹ it is, first of all, the instructor's task to gain the confidence of the pupil, if possible. He must establish a rapport sufficient to make his reasons or his personal appeals valid. After that the task becomes merely one of finding a suitable selection and making the right articulation between literature and life as the pupil has so far experienced or envisaged it. More difficult, perhaps, are the problem cases arising from false social attitudes toward literature and the arts, unfortunate attitudes acquired through early home or social contacts. For such pupils one must start very simply at the bottom to build up a natural appreciative attitude toward life and toward literature as one of its interpretations.

In concluding, let us sum up a few features of supervised study in English which are deemed of prime importance. In supervised study the classroom becomes a workshop, a laboratory, or a library, with a natural, happy, industrious tone. Lessons are not assigned and recited; work is discovered; pursued, and completed to the satisfaction of the worker. The instructor is not a cross-examining lawyer, nor a lecturer, nor a policeman, nor a slave-driver, nor a nurse; he is a sympathetic guide, leading the inexperienced through new experiences, directing and observing their progress with a definite goal in mind. In such a situation, under such leadership, literature becomes for the pupil a rich and inspiring influence; composition, a natural and dignified process of self-expression.

¹ Henry C. Morrison, "Supervised Study," *School Review*, XXXI (October, 1923), 596 ff.

GETTING AWAY FROM FORMAL "LESSON-LEARNING"

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In an excess of zeal and good intentions, many progressive teachers have sought to standardize their subjects and, that being done, have found to their dismay that the juice was all out of the fruit, only the husk of formalism remaining. Recently the writer found himself in such a situation. His pupils, instead of assimilating the standardized subject, were developing into formal lesson-learners, nothing more. Acting under the inspiration of a summer-school course, he attempted to set up a real learning situation. The progress of the experiment is described in this article.

A class in commercial geography was selected. The pupils taking this course were third- and fourth-year students and, for the most part, were enrolled in the commercial curriculum. *Commerce and Industry* by J. Russell Smith was the text in use.

The first step in the reorganization of the technique was the determination of the following unitary objectives of the course: (1) the food industries of the United States, (2) the fundamentals of manufacture, (3) a survey of the manufacturing industries of the United States, (4) transportation and communication, and (5) trade and exchange.

These units are similar in that each represents a body of facts and principles to be understood. Consequently, they involve the same type of learning processes and should, therefore, respond to the same type of teaching technique. The course having been reorganized into definite units of understanding, it was entirely possible to organize the appropriate technique of instruction.

As the technique was new and strange to the class, the first two days were spent in introducing the method. When the pupils came into the room for the first time, they saw written on the black-board the five steps in the learning cycle—preparation, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation. The first half of the

period was used in commenting on the organization of the course and in explaining in simple terms the psychology of the learning cycle and how it would be applied to each of the five units. During the last half of the period, each pupil wrote a short paper on the instruction that he had received. The instructor found in these papers evidence of considerable confusion and misinterpretation of the part pertaining to method. In order to set the pupils right, the entire lecture was reviewed the following day with particular emphasis on the difficult parts. An informal discussion arising from the pupils' questions followed, and by the end of the period it was evident that all had caught the idea and were eager to try it out.

The procedure in the third unit, a survey of the manufacturing industries of the United States, will serve to show how it was worked out by the class. Each of the industries included in the survey was a smaller unit and was treated as such in the application of the technique. The following industries were reviewed: (a) the steel industry, (b) the automobile industry, (c) the textile and clothing industries, (d) the wood and paper industries, (e) the rubber industry, and (f) the chemical industries. The five steps—preparation, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation—were applied to each of the industries as a unit, except that all of the recitations were held at the end of the survey.

Preparation.—The pupils came to class without a previous assignment. It had been announced that we were to begin the study of the steel industry. It is proposed to establish a blast furnace in our city, and this fact was referred to in such a way as to raise the question, "Why a blast furnace here?" The entire class period was spent in a very informal discussion of this question. Naturally, most of the important principles of steel manufacture became involved in the discussion, and there was talk of these principles in connection with the fundamentals of manufacture, thus bridging across to the unit just completed. This exercise made it clear to the pupils that their knowledge of the industry was very limited, suggested the proposed blast furnace as an element of common interest, and stimulated the desire to know more about it.

Presentation.—At the next meeting of the class, the following outline was on the board:

THE STEEL INDUSTRY

1. Its location
2. The manufacturing processes
3. The organization of the industry
4. The position of the United States in the industry

During the first half of the period, the principal facts under each of these headings were briefly presented. At the same time the pupils were made to understand that this presentation was only a brief overview of the unit, the purpose of which was to make it possible for them to work intelligently rather than blindly. Then, in order to be sure that they understood, the pupils were asked to write out very carefully what had been told them. These papers were read, and the results were tabulated with reference to the important facts included and omitted. In this way the instructor learned which points had been poorly presented. These were presented a second time in a review lecture on the following day. More than one-half of the pupils had included all of the important points in the first paper. These pupils were permitted to begin the assimilation work without delay. The others wrote a second test.

Assimilation.—At the beginning of the assimilation period each pupil was given a mimeographed sheet containing definite directions for notebook work, references for text and supplementary reading, and suggestions for special problems. The supplementary readings were referred to by titles and authors only. At the beginning of the first assimilation period a "How to Use a Book" exercise was conducted, with the text as a basis. This exercise was most valuable in developing a measure of independence in getting information from books. The instructor was surprised to discover Juniors and Seniors in high school who did not know that a book has an index and a table of contents.

The pupils worked at their own speed with the assimilation material. Each kept a notebook which, when finished, was a record of his own experience with this material. Most pupils developed considerable pride in their notebooks. Many were in

typewritten form, although this was not required. The tendency at first was to make the notebook a mere mechanical record of answers and disconnected paragraphs. The suggestion that all notebook material first be recorded in temporary form and later be organized and worked into coherent units resulted in some very creditable books. Some pupils voluntarily rewrote portions of their notebooks after they understood how the material should be organized.

This was a typical directed-study situation. Day after day the individual members of the class worked independently of any daily recitation procedure. They had their outlines which provided specific study directions and, at the same time, gave them a considerable degree of freedom in the amount of work to be accomplished in a given time. During this period, the instructor assumed the rôle of inspector, stimulator, and guide, all in a very informal way. Naturally, many individual and general difficulties were disclosed. Whenever a general problem was discovered, the attention of the class was directed toward it, and the difficulty was cleared up at once. Frequently, at the beginning of the class period, ten or fifteen minutes were used for oral questioning on parts of the unit that all had finished. Any general misinterpretation of assimilation material was usually brought to light in this period. Frequent use of the short written test was also made. The results of these tests were always used as guides for the instructor in more specific instruction on the misunderstood parts.

It has been stated that each pupil moved at his own speed through the assimilation period. It is obvious, therefore, that some pupils finished long before others. Usually it was possible to demonstrate to these pupils that there was additional work which they could do to their own interest and advantage. If it seemed that a pupil had spent enough time on the unit, he was encouraged to select a related topic for further study, for it was necessary, from the administrative standpoint, to have the entire class pass from the assimilation period at the same time.

No grades were given for any of this work or for any of the tests. If it was necessary to return test papers, appropriate comments were written on them, but nothing more. When the note-

book was satisfactorily completed, the mark "1" was written on it. This absence of grades was the most difficult point for the pupils to justify, which shows how completely they had become slaves to marks. The most frequent objection was: "Why can't we know our grades?" The invariable reply was that the instructor himself did not know them. Sometimes the pupils were referred to a placard on the wall which read, "Are you working for an education or for a mark?" or to another which read, "Don't be a grade-chaser." Of course, it was necessary to assign grades at the end of the course, in compliance with a school regulation.

When all of the pupils had finished the notebook work and it was evident that the principles of the unit were understood, the entire class was subjected to what we may call the final assimilation test. At this stage it is practically certain that the class is ready to pass on to the next phase of the learning cycle. Therefore, this test is little more than a check on the judgment of the instructor. Two types of test were given. One test consisted of from thirty-five to fifty information questions which could be answered very briefly. The questions were dictated, and just enough time was allowed for the pupils to answer without giving prolonged thought to a question. As soon as the last question was dictated and the pupils had had time to answer it, the papers were collected. Then they were passed out again in a different order, and the class checked the answers. After the correct answer to a question was given by a pupil and agreed on by the class, the answers to this question on the papers were checked. The second test was devised to give the pupils an opportunity to think through a problem involving the application of the facts and principles of the unit. This test consisted of a single problem: "Imagine that you are in the employ of the United States Steel Corporation and have been given the assignment to make a survey and report on the feasibility of establishing a blast furnace in our own city. Make a systematic outline of the factors you would study in the survey."

If the examination of these papers revealed any general misunderstanding of the principles, the class was retaught on the following day and the test repeated. If the difficulties were purely individual ones, the class passed on, and the difficulties were handled in individual conferences.

Organization.—The next day the pupils took their places without notes or aids of any sort. They were provided with paper and proceeded to write out a logical organization of the unit. This was required to be more than an outline. General headings were used as in an outline, but all of the subheadings were required to be complete sentences like topic sentences. The pupils thought that this was the most difficult step in the procedure, and, judging from their earlier attempts, one could easily believe so. Each paper was constructively criticized, and most of the pupils showed great improvement after a few trials.

Recitation.—At the beginning of the assimilation period the following topics were written on the blackboard: the steel industry, the automobile industry, the textile and clothing industries, the wood and paper industries, the rubber industry, and the chemical industries. The subjects for recitation were assigned by having the class count off by sixes, taking the subjects by number. The pupils were instructed that all recitations would be held at the end of the entire unit. They were allowed to select any phase of the subject assigned to them, the selection to be approved by the instructor during the first week of the assimilation period. This plan gave each pupil a particular objective in the recitation and thus trained him in the habit of studying with an objective in mind. The privilege of selecting a phase of the industry encouraged him to make a preliminary survey.

Two types of recitation were used. Eight pupils were assigned to give floor talks. All of the others presented written recitations which were due on the last day of the floor talks. These written recitations were carefully read and criticized. In some cases it was necessary to require the pupils to rewrite their papers completely. On the other hand, some papers represented a very high quality of work and made very interesting reading. Some floor talks had to be classified as failures. In these cases the pupils were required to repeat with a written recitation. In nearly all cases where pupils failed in the floor talks they presented acceptable written recitations. Like the written recitations, some of the floor talks were highly commendable pieces of work. One boy, a Senior, selected as his subject, "The Processes of Steel Manufacture." He applied his chemistry, and on the day of his recitation he was

at school at 6:00 A.M. to set up apparatus for the demonstration of the chemical processes of steel manufacture. He used about two-thirds of the period for his talk and held the complete attention of the class for the entire time. Those who had difficulty with one type of recitation often found the other type easy. One student who excelled in football rather than in academic subjects was required to rewrite his first two written recitations. When his turn came for a floor talk, however, he carried away the honors of the day.

The reader may ask for measurements of the results of the technique to show that it represented improvement. No such measurements were obtained. In a long-time experiment, which was well controlled and in which standard achievement tests were developed and applied, one might make a fairly reliable measurement of the results. That was not possible in this case.

The atmosphere of the class and the attitude of the individuals give a reliable index of the merit of the technique. Nearly 40 per cent of the members of this class did either very much better work than they were in the habit of doing or not nearly so good work. The interpretation of this peculiar result can be made in terms of lesson-learning. Those who did better work in this course were responding to a better technique. Those who did not do so well were the typical lesson-learners.

Perhaps it is presuming too much to refer to the procedure as a mastery technique. Mastery was not secured in this class, but it was a long step from the stilted lesson-hearing type of procedure.

THE STATUS OF THE NEW ENGLAND HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

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In an effort to determine the status of the New England high-school principal, a questionnaire was sent in June, 1923, to all of the principals of the New England high schools. The questionnaires were sent through the superintendents in the various towns. The replies from the principals of junior high schools and two-year high schools were set aside, as well as a few that were defective, leaving 238 replies for further study. These were divided into two groups: (1) replies from principals of high schools having more than 200 pupils and (2) replies from principals of high schools having less than 200 pupils. There were 114 replies in the first group and 124 replies in the second group.

It is believed that these replies furnish a fair sampling of the New England high-school principals so that what is true of them may be considered true of the New England high-school principals in general.

The questionnaire was divided into a number of sections as follows: (1) personal matters, such as age, place of birth, salary, etc.; (2) education, with special reference to professional preparation; (3) previous experience as teacher and principal; (4) school leadership; (5) educational leadership; (6) leadership in the community; (7) reading; and (8) recreation.

1. *Personal matters.*—If the mode or the most common number is taken as the type, the principals in the larger high schools—that is, the schools having more than 200 pupils—are about forty-four years of age, while the principals in the smaller high schools—those having less than 200 pupils—are about thirty years of age. Of all of the high-school principals, 86 per cent were born in New England. This evidences a large amount of inbreeding. Twenty-nine per cent were born in Maine, and 29 per cent were born in

Massachusetts. When it is considered that the number of questionnaires returned for Massachusetts was about four times the number returned for Maine, the prominence of Maine as the birthplace becomes very evident.

Eighty-one per cent of the principals are married; 39 per cent have no children, and 27 per cent have only one child. Sixty-six per cent of the high-school principals, therefore, have either no children or only one child. The families, then, are small. Only 19 per cent reported dependents other than immediate members of the family.

The most common salary in the larger schools is between \$3,000 and \$3,500; in the smaller schools, between \$1,500 and \$2,000, with a tendency to be nearer \$2,000.

Only 26 per cent of the principals reported that they own their own homes, thus indicating that they are more or less a nomadic people. This is confirmed by the answers to the question, "Do you own an automobile?" Fifty-six per cent answered, "Yes."

Ninety-two per cent of the principals replied that they carry life insurance. When it is remembered that only 81 per cent are married, it is seen that a very large percentage of the high-school principals carry life insurance other than that provided by the state. Thus the high-school principals are shown to be provident folk.

2. *Education.*—Seventy-seven per cent of the principals received their education wholly in New England; only 4 per cent gained their education completely outside of New England. The remaining 19 per cent received some of their education outside of New England. Manifestly, the high-school principals of New England are likely to preserve New England traditions and are not much affected by outside influences, at least during the period of their education.

Only 2 per cent of the principals hold the Doctor's degree; 17 per cent hold the Master's degree; 78 per cent hold only the Bachelor's degree; and only 3 per cent hold no degree at all. Thus, the New England high-school principal, while he is a college graduate, is not particularly noted for his scholarship.

Fifteen per cent of the principals did their college work at Bates; 7.9 per cent at Harvard; 7.1 per cent at Amherst; 6.7 per cent at Colby; 5.4 per cent at Dartmouth; 5 per cent at Brown; and so

on down the list until the percentages become so small as to be of little significance. Very few colleges outside of New England are mentioned. Among these, Cornell and Columbia are the most important.

An attempt was made to determine the amount of work done in professional study by the principals both before and after graduation from college. It was found that 30 per cent had done no such work. In many cases the principals did not even understand what was meant by professional study. About 20 per cent had completed the equivalent of a three-hour course for a year and another 20 per cent the equivalent of two three-hour courses for one year; 30 per cent had completed various amounts of professional work beyond this. The amount of professional work is, then, rather small, but the evidence indicates that it is increasing.

3. *Experience.*—To the question, "Have you taught in an elementary school?" 35 per cent of the principals replied that they had taught in one or more elementary schools, but the periods reported were very short, usually less than a year. For the most part, this teaching was done before entering college or during the college period.

It was found that 92 per cent of the principals had taught in other high schools. The nomadic character of high-school principals was further evidenced by the fact that 28 per cent have been in their present positions one year or less; 20 per cent, two years; 8 per cent, three years; 10 per cent, four years; and 9 per cent, five years. Thus, 75 per cent of the principals have been in their present positions only five years or less, and 48 per cent of the principals—nearly one-half—have been in their present positions only two years or less. Of course, there are many longer periods, but the common period is manifestly very short. One principal has served twenty-five years; four, twenty-eight years each; one, thirty years; and one, thirty-two years.

Of all of the principals, 49 per cent have been principals of other secondary schools. This fact again shows that high-school principals move about a great deal.

4. *School leadership.*—An attempt was made to find out how much time the principals are giving to teaching and how much time they are giving to supervision. One-half of the principals

in the larger schools do not teach. Practically every principal in the smaller schools teaches; in fact, 69 per cent teach from 50 per cent to 90 per cent of the time, and 10 per cent teach practically all of the time.

Forty per cent of the principals in the larger schools report that they give to supervision from 20 per cent to 30 per cent of their time, and 20 per cent report that they give between 10 per cent and 20 per cent of their time. In the smaller schools 40 per cent report that they give from 10 per cent to 20 per cent of their time, and 30 per cent report that they give from 1 per cent to 10 per cent of their time. On the whole, the reports indicated that the time given to supervision is overestimated rather than underestimated. One of the most important means by which schools may be improved is better supervision. One must judge that in the majority of schools a very small amount of time is given to supervision.

It is interesting to note the subjects taught by the principals who are teaching. In the old days, the principals, if they taught at all—and they usually did—taught Latin. They were Latin teachers. The present investigation shows that the situation has changed considerably. Of the principals now teaching, only 14 per cent teach Latin or foreign languages; 21 per cent teach either English or history or both; and 53 per cent teach mathematics or science or both. Thus the schools are coming manifestly under the leadership of men trained in mathematics and science rather than in Latin. This is a radical change.

To find out whether the principals are progressive and up to date, the following questions were asked: "Have you used intelligence tests since September, 1922?" "Have you used standard educational tests since September, 1922?" Forty-nine per cent of the principals have used intelligence tests and only 30 per cent have used standard educational tests. The number of principals using intelligence tests in the academic year 1922-23 was manifestly very greatly increased by the investigations conducted throughout Massachusetts in December, 1922, to measure the intelligence of high-school Seniors.

The investigation showed that only 5 per cent of the principals visited no other high school in the past two years; 77 per cent

visited from one to eight high schools. Five principals visited twelve schools each; one principal, fourteen schools; four principals, fifteen schools each; six principals, twenty schools each; one principal, twenty-two schools; two principals, twenty-five schools each; two principals, thirty schools each; and one principal, fifty schools. This amazing number of schools visited is probably explained by the fact that the principals have been visiting high schools for the purpose of securing teachers and in some cases hold both the position of principal and the position of superintendent.

5. *Educational leadership.*—Most of the high-school principals attended educational meetings or conventions during the year beginning September, 1922. The majority of them (64 per cent) attended two or three such meetings or conventions. In the past four years 45 per cent of them have held offices in educational associations. This fact shows that the high-school principals have an important part in these associations.

Eighty-seven per cent of the principals have published no articles. Ten principals have published two articles each; eleven, a few or several articles each. Only thirteen principals report publishing books; in these cases, they are commonly editors or co-editors. The investigation shows that high-school principals do not as a class write magazine articles or publish books and thus influence the movements in education.

A question was asked regarding the educational addresses that had been made by the principals outside of their own schools before educational bodies in the four years prior to June, 1923. A great majority of the principals (70 per cent) had made no such addresses. Ten per cent had spoken once in the four years; and 6 per cent, twice. Only 8 per cent had made several or frequent addresses.

6. *Leadership in the community.*—Almost all (90 per cent) of the principals are members of civic, social, fraternal, or other non-educational organizations, and 33 per cent were holding offices in such organizations in June, 1923, thus showing that high-school principals are often leaders in civic and social organizations. Have the high-school principals made addresses before non-educational clubs in the last four years? The majority of them (55 per cent) have not. One address in the past four years is reported by

10 per cent; two by 8 per cent; three by 7 per cent. Only 21 per cent have averaged more than one address a year.

7. *Reading.*—An attempt was made to find out the professional books that have been read by the principals and whether these books have been read thoroughly or simply in a cursory fashion. A list of the common professional books was given with spaces for adding others. The results show that the principals have read an average of 2.7 books carefully and an average of 2.3 books cursorily. If these totals are combined, it is found that the principals are acquainted with an average of about five professional books. The reading is widely distributed with the leading books appearing in the following order: S. S. Colvin, *An Introduction to High School Teaching*; S. C. Parker, *Methods of Teaching in High Schools*; Paul Monroe, *Principles of Secondary Education*; and David Snedden, *Problems of Secondary Education*. The Massachusetts and Connecticut principals are the greatest readers of professional books.

A similar method was used to find out the professional magazines read by the principals during the past year. Twelve per cent had read no professional magazines; 63 per cent had read the *School Review*; 45 per cent, the *American School Board Journal*; 18 per cent, the *Journal of Educational Research*; 15 per cent, the *Teachers College Record*; and 13 per cent, *Educational Administration and Supervision*. Although they were not included in the list given, 12 per cent reported reading the *Journal of the National Education Association*; and 12 per cent, the *Journal of Education*.

The reading of professional magazines is less in Massachusetts and Rhode Island and less wisely selected than in the other states of New England.

With regard to the non-professional magazines, 85 per cent of the principals read the *Literary Digest*; 50 per cent, the *Atlantic Monthly*; 48 per cent, the *World's Work*; 44 per cent, the *Review of Reviews*; 26 per cent, the *Independent*; 13 per cent, the *Survey*. Other magazines frequently mentioned, although not on the list, are the *National Geographic Magazine*, the *American Magazine*, and the *Outlook*. Almost all of the principals read regularly one daily paper and sometimes two.

8. *Recreation.*—The last part of the questionnaire attempted to find out the chief recreations of the high-school principals and how the principals were employed during the summer vacation of 1922. Forty-four principals mentioned walking and tramping as the chief form of recreation; forty, motoring. The principals of the larger schools mentioned motoring more frequently; the principals of the smaller schools, walking and hiking. Thus, as we should expect, the older men ride, and the younger men walk. Tennis was mentioned by 40 principals; gardening and farming by 37; fishing by 26; baseball by 21; and reading by 20. Only eight of the principals in the larger schools mentioned reading as one of their recreations; it manifestly stands low in the list in comparison with the physical activities. Golf, swimming, music, and hunting were also represented by respectable numbers. A very few principals mentioned billiards and pool, cards, the theater, and similar amusements. It is plain, then, that the recreation of the high-school principals is chiefly outdoors and involves physical activities. This is as it should be inasmuch as the regular work of the principals is confining and largely mental.

With reference to employment during the summer vacation of 1922, fifty-eight principals mentioned work other than teaching: assistant treasurer in a bank, taking roomers, directing an orchestra, playing the piano, day laborer, assistant superintendent of club, selling antiques, canvassing, post-office clerk, preparing a book, paymaster and accountant, camp work, tutoring, garage proprietor, chauffeur, machinist, forest surveying work, selling life insurance, carpentering, editor of a paper, selling ice cream, salesman, and so on through a long list of very greatly diversified occupations. Mention of summer-school study was made by forty-three principals; organizing school work, by forty-one; and farming and gardening, by thirty-one.

The results of the study are presented in the following summary:

If we consider the mode as the type, the typical New England high-school principal in the larger schools is a man between forty and forty-five years of age, while the principal in the smaller schools is about thirty years of age. He was born in New England and very likely in Maine. He is married but probably has either no children

or only one child. He usually has no other dependents. His salary, if he is in the larger schools, is a little over \$3,000; if he is in the smaller schools, it is about \$2,000. He does not own his home but very frequently owns an automobile. He almost invariably carries life insurance, even if not married.

He has had all of his education or almost all of it in New England. He is almost always a graduate of a New England college but holds only the first degree. He is, then, not a man of marked scholarship. He has, however, either before leaving college or later in summer schools, pursued a little professional study.

Occasionally, he has taught in an elementary school, but he has taught in several different high schools. He has moved about rather frequently and has been only a year or two in his present position. In the larger schools, he gives little time to teaching; in the smaller schools, he teaches from one-half to three-fourths of the time. In neither school does he give a large amount of time to supervision proper. If he teaches, he probably teaches mathematics or science.

He is conservative and does not readily adopt new methods, but the tendency is toward a more professional attitude. He is not a writer or a speaker to any extent, and he does not publish books or show creative scholarship. He speaks rather oftener before non-educational groups than before educational groups. He is usually a member of two or three educational associations and some non-educational societies. In both he often holds some office, thus showing his leadership.

He has read two or three professional books carefully and as many more cursorily. He reads the *School Review*, the *American School Board Journal*, the *Literary Digest*, and often the *Atlantic Monthly*.

He finds his chief recreation in outdoor activities—walking and tramping, motoring, tennis, or gardening. Reading is only occasionally his important recreation. He spends his long vacation in organizing his work for the next year, in study, in work outside of his profession, or in travel or recreation.

The chief virtue of the New England high-school principal is that he is a schoolmaster. He is occupied with many important details

of the administration of his school and with the details of instruction. His danger is that he will not see the woods because of the trees. If there is a distinction between a teacher and an educator, he is distinctly a teacher.

In the public-school system he has been continually losing position, while the superintendent has been gaining. Once the high-school principal was the equal of the superintendent, if not the superior. In most matters pertaining to the high school, the superintendent deferred to him. Now he defers to the superintendent. This has come to pass not because the superintendent has grown faster but because the superintendent has gained the broad point of view and, with the gaining of the broad point of view, has won the confidence and respect of the public. The high-school principal is still on the way. His day is coming.

Signs of this are to be seen in his increasing professional interests as shown in his professional studies, in the broader and more human character of the topics discussed at his teachers' meetings, and in the wide scope of his acquaintance with magazines in the professional field.

Soon he will be a reader of books as well as of magazines, and then there is before him the great field of scholarship and creative activity which will make him a real factor in educational progress—truly a leader.

THE COACH AND THE SCHOOL

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A generation ago, the athletic coach, as he is today, was almost unknown among the smaller schools. One of the men teachers or the principal went to the games with the boys, perhaps attended practice occasionally, and helped to preserve order and unity in the teams, but with that his responsibility ceased. The boys organized, conducted, and controlled their extra-curricular activities. Educational authorities now recognize the fact that sports have a tremendous bearing on the development of youth and that athletics should be used to give impetus to school aims and endeavors, and, in order to obtain the development of character, physique, and personality in the highest degree, they are putting in charge of athletics highly specialized teachers called coaches or teachers of athletics.

These athletic instructors may be divided roughly into two classes, namely, members of the faculty who are engaged to teach classes and coach sports and men who are hired primarily and solely to coach the teams. Men of the former class are proving themselves indispensable to modern school life. Men of the latter class are frequently found to be dangerous liabilities when allowed to assume control of school athletics.

In order to maintain a true personal perspective with regard to the fundamental aims of the school, it is necessary for the coach to be a teacher. It is noticeable that every teacher tends to over-emphasize his own subject. The teacher of history year after year increases the demands which he makes on his students and enlarges his conception of the place that history should occupy in the curriculum. The teachers of mathematics bewail the lack of preparation on the part of the students who come to them and demand more time in which to increase their accomplishments. Likewise, if a man teaches athletics exclusively, he magnifies their importance until, unless checked, the school becomes an institution for the train-

ing of modern gladiators rather than modern citizens. Coaching must be considered as merely a part of a teacher's duty if the coach is to maintain the proper balance between athletics and instruction.

The coach should be a teacher in order to have that understanding of the problems of the school which will enable him properly to correlate his activities with what the school is trying to do. Such problems may be purely educational; that is, they may involve the preparation of athletes for college, classroom requirements, school discipline, the financing of athletics, or ideals which the school is trying to establish; or they may involve the entire community and be political or social. A coach who fails to adjust his coaching so as to assist the school in attaining its highest ideals fails to give athletics the place which they should occupy in school life, even though he may win every game scheduled. Such adjustment can come only from a coach who thoroughly understands the school and who is in sympathy with the school officials through daily contact with them.

The problem of the school may be the implanting of American ideals in the minds of the children of immigrants, newly landed, with all of the Old World selfishness and poverty and class distinction imbedded and reflected in their offspring. In the case of such children the American admiration of the athlete develops a most unhealthy egotism unless continually combatted. The desire to win, coupled with a lack of understanding of the meaning of sportsmanship, results in unfair methods of play, in a breaking of rules if possible, and in the abuse of officials. In such cases the coach must be a man of unquestionable integrity and sportsmanship, ready and anxious to sacrifice victory for the sake of teaching that the struggle of a game is but a small-scale replica of the contest of life and that in each the final reward of community respect goes only to the man who has played the game fairly and given his best, regardless of the result.

The problem of the school may be political. There are communities in which the control of athletics in the school passes from the principal of the school to members of the school board or politicians who exploit the games for their own financial gain, cleverly masking their actions under the misleading slogan that winning athletic

teams serve to advertise the town. There are communities so lacking in civic pride and so blinded to true values that they permit the hiring of a professional coach for the sole purpose of producing winning teams, in order to attract crowds large enough to pay for a privately owned athletic plant for the use of the school, which should be provided with such a plant from public funds. The solution of such problems is to put in charge of athletics a teacher capable of forcing public opinion to regard schoolboy games as educational and not professional.

A coach should be a teacher because as such he grows to know the students from the point of view of their educational aims rather than because of their physical development. He should know from daily contact with the other teachers which athletes are good students and which are doing only enough work to keep them eligible for the teams. As a teacher, he can demand classroom standards of the athletes that would not be respected by them if it were known that he was wholly interested in physical activities. Also, it is important to note that the addition to the staff of a teacher who can set an example in athletics raises the general level of the students' opinion of the faculty.

Furthermore, the man in charge of the school athletic teams should consider it his duty to teach athletics. There is a great difference between the teaching of athletics and the coaching of a team, although the distinction is seldom considered by those who judge the ability of the coach wholly on the basis of the number of games won. For example, in a certain high school enrolling about two hundred boys, ninety or more report at the athletic field four afternoons a week, dressed for physical exercise. For an hour they receive physical training and setting-up drills, and for this work they may receive credits toward graduation. At the close of the training hour the boys on the various squads go to practice with their respective teams. The time left for team practice is necessarily shorter than the time enjoyed by other schools, but no time needs to be spent by the coach in conditioning the players. The records show that since the system was established the teams have been uniformly better than before, and the school is famous for clean, hard playing. A visitor to that school is impressed with the erect car-

riage and health of the students. Contrast this with a school of similar size where a group of from fifteen to twenty-five boys report for football practice, each afternoon that the coach personally requests their coming, for the purpose of spending two hours in highly specialized individual instruction for the defeating of eleven boys representing some rival institution. It seems scarcely logical for a town to pay from two to five hundred dollars for a man to teach twenty boys how to play football and at the same time fail to provide any athletic training for two hundred other boys who stand on the street corner and waste their time because they lack some physical ability which the twenty possess.

The trouble lies in the mistaken idea that the way to produce a winning team is to concentrate attention on a few selected individuals. It is due to the fact that no man who believes that holding his job depends on victory dares to adopt the far-sighted policy of providing thorough physical training for all and then to rely on it to furnish the material out of which a successful team may be molded with a minimum of effort. The first step in the establishment of a uniformly successful system of athletics is to place in charge a teacher whose business it is to give physical training and whose success is measured in terms of the moral and physical development of the majority of the students of the school.

An important cause of the failure of the teacher-coach system, either in teaching or in coaching, is the schedule of classes assigned to such men. It is not uncommon to find a teacher-coach whose schedule is as full as that of any other teacher in the school system. In many schools the teacher-coaches are given home-rooms and study rooms to look after, in which are to be found most of the difficult disciplinary cases, because such men can usually handle the obstreperous boys. In other schools they are assistant principals and are expected to assume administrative duties. The excuse of the school board or superintendent for overworking such a teacher is that he is given extra pay for coaching and doing it outside of school hours, and the same school board or superintendent will either accept criticisms from parents because the teacher was not able to give the students enough out-of-school help to enable them to keep their work up to standard or else accept the suggestion of

the alumni that they hire a coach with energy enough to make the squad into an aggressive, victorious unit. Then people think that the remedy lies in hiring some popular athlete who needs a job and whom they think qualified because he wears a college letter and is liked by the boys. The proper use of an able teacher-coach solves the coaching problem, but no man can teach and supervise all morning, coach in the afternoon, prepare for his teaching in the evening, conduct games on Saturday, and be the success that he is expected to be in all that he is expected to do.

As a teacher, the coach has an opportunity to advance his coaching by using his schoolroom. The best teachers of the academic subjects are constantly collecting pictures and reports of activities in their departments; the coach should be alert to secure anything of value to the teaching of athletics and display it in his room. For example, a teacher-coach was assigned to a small recitation room that was undecorated, and he proceeded to make it distinctly an athletic room. He secured a number of photographs of a famous college football team in action, hung them conspicuously and used them in showing the boys how the game should be played. Winning balls and treasured bats helped to decorate the room. On a huge bulletin board he posted pictures and articles of interest taken from newspapers. Particular blue-pencil emphasis was given to items that advanced the cause of good sportsmanship, and this bulletin board was visited every day by so many students that it became necessary to restrict them. That coach seldom preached directly to the players, but from the articles on that bulletin board they absorbed good sportsmanship until it was reflected in their playing on the field. At a halt in a football game on a muddy field that man gave the members of his team a blanket on which to wipe their slippery hands. As they finished, the captain handed it to his opponents to use, and the coach led the applause that followed the act. Many people were surprised because the feeling between the teams was intense. Afterward the coach asked the boy why he did it and received the reply, "You told me that Harvard and Yale swapped towels the day that they played in the rain."

In this same classroom were hung pictures of the teams representing the school. In one corner was a long shelf on which were

kept a number of books about the different sports. Members of the squads were allowed to borrow them, and the information secured from such reading was used for the benefit of the school. The students liked to go to that room for classes, and a group could usually be found there in the afternoon discussing athletics. The room was used for meetings of the teams and for signal drills and discussions, and on rainy days athletes might be found there who needed help of any kind, whether athletic or scholastic. The spirit of the room finally resulted in the forming of a club by the wearers of the school letter for the purpose of promoting better sportsmanship among the teams of the school.

As a teacher, the coach has a great opportunity to assist in the discipline of the school. It is not uncommon to find teachers who rejoice over the chance to use interference with a boy's athletic opportunity as a whip with which to beat him into disciplinary or scholastic submission. "If John does not stop whispering and do his home work, I will stop his playing basketball," a teacher of English told a coach recently, and a serious split in the faculty was caused when that young man courageously replied that he did not believe any teacher of ability needed to cripple an athletic team in order to solve a classroom problem. No athlete should be given privileges or opportunities not offered to other students, but surely no boy ought to find his athletic position furnishing a club with which a belligerent teacher can drive him to standards not demanded of his classmates or reached by them.

A good teacher-coach can entirely eliminate this opposition between the purely academic teacher and the purely athletic instructor. By appealing directly to the athletes, a teacher-coach can make them see that they owe to their team and school such conduct and scholarship as will make them worthy members of the group, and, for the sake of the team, the boys will maintain standards that they never could be coerced into upholding. A quiet word from the teacher to the teacher-coach, informing him that a certain athlete is not doing as he should, results in action by the coach on the ground that such misconduct, if continued, will harm the team. Sometimes a teacher-coach will suspend from play an athlete whose scholastic reports are not satisfactory, telling him that someone must be

trained who surely will be eligible when the hard games are played. It never fails to produce an immediate change for the better in the classroom. The coach may perhaps tell the players that they are almost revered by the students in the lower grades of the school, that they are the idols of every small boy in the town, that their actions are copied and their attitudes mimicked, and that their influence is tremendous. This is flattery perhaps but flattery that will make the boys realize that they owe to themselves the setting of a worthy standard of conduct.

Again, a teacher-coach may exert a powerful influence in the direction of keeping boys in school. Many a boy is held in school by the charm of athletics when otherwise he would be drifting from one poorly selected job to another. Some people say that if athletics are all that he goes to school for, he would be better off at work. Many such boys, however, come to find themselves during these athletic years, grow to realize what school really means to them, and finally make for themselves a place that they would never have attained except for the extra schooling athletics made them accept. Usually their awakening dates from the time when their teacher-coach talked seriously with them of the future.

Finally, as we study the question, it becomes evident that all of the advantages of schoolboy athletics depend on the personality of the coach. Athletics are probably the most important single factor in the school life of many boys, and undoubtedly the most important influence in athletics is the personality of the coach. He leads. His standards are their standards; his example, their aim. He has a tremendous responsibility. In taking his place in school life he is making more than his own reputation or even the reputation of the school; he is making the character of youth. What type of man must he be? What standards should we demand of this man to whom we intrust our boys in their most important activity?

He must be morally clean. No list of victories, however long, no reputation for producing star players, can balance in the slightest degree any implication that his life off the field is not exemplary.

He should not smoke. This is a much disputed question, but we are inconsistent if we expect our boys to attain maturity without

using tobacco and at the same time place them under the control of a coach who finds it necessary to smoke in public.

He should not use or tolerate profanity. This is another disputed question; men will argue that in football a coach has to swear in order to arouse his men to a fighting pitch, but experience proves the contrary.

He should keep his temper, always. I have seen a football coach strike one of his players with his fist, and I heard the father of one of his opponents say, "That may be the way he won three city championships, but he never could coach my boy, for I wouldn't let him play under him." I have seen many coaches abuse officials, but I have never seen one profit thereby.

Finally, he must be a gentleman, first, last, and all of the time. No matter what conditions may be, in victory or defeat, in practice or games, under fair or dishonest officials, in the face of any circumstances, that standard must be maintained. Sportsmanship is a word to inspire, but all of its new meanings and applications are included in what men have always meant by the term "gentleman." Strongly in defeat, overpoweringly in victory, the coach leads our youth. His is the opportunity. Great is his responsibility. And fortunate indeed is the school numbering among its faculty a teacher-coach able and willing to assume his proper place in school life.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A functional interpretation of mentality.—Much attention has been given by psychologists and psychiatrists during the last ten years to the development and perfection of tests for the determination of mental ability. As a result, many tests have been devised which can be administered to children *en masse* by teachers or supervisors. These tests are supplied with norms and tables for transmuting performance into mental age or intelligence quotient. While, in general, the progress thus made has had a significant bearing on education and the solution of educational problems, it has not contributed materially toward an answer to the question which has always baffled educators and social workers, namely, Why do children of apparently equal mental status behave differently when subjected to the same stimulus?

A recent publication¹ presents a neglected point of view in education which is certain to have great influence on pedagogical practice in our schools. The volume is the first study to deal in a really constructive way with the causes and treatment of maladjustment. The author takes the position that the source of unbalanced behavior is wrong mental function and that the unstable child in our schools must not be regarded as hopeless but as a subject for analysis and proper corrective treatment.

The book is divided into two parts. Part I deals with "The Unstable Child in Theory." It treats very clearly and in considerable detail the problems of clinical psychology from the standpoints of origin, recent tendencies, and future developments; the technique of administering well-known tests in the study of mental functions; and the manner and methods of handling the unstable child in the psychological clinic. The functional angle of mental ability as a school problem, which receives emphatic treatment in Part I, is clearly set forth in the following statement from the Preface:

Just as each individual has a certain mental level or *quantity* of intelligence available, so he has a definite *quality* of that quantity. This quality may be good or poor. No matter what the child's mental level, that intelligence which he has may function efficiently, inefficiently, peculiarly, disastrously, or unpredictably, because of such *difference of quality* [p. viii].

¹ Florence Mateer, *The Unstable Child*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1924. Pp. xii+472.

Part II deals with "The Practice of Psychopathy." Psychopathy is defined in Part I as the extent to which the intelligence with which an individual is equipped works normally or abnormally (p. 143). The underlying theory advanced in Part II with respect to the treatment of delinquent or maladjusted deviates is that "there is no such thing as a bad boy or girl. Either the child does not know any better or else he cannot help it" (p. 233). The acceptance of this theory of youthful behavior compels a change in the attitude of the school. When confronted with maladjustment or troublesome behavior on the part of individual children, those in charge must concentrate on the search for causes instead of temporizing with symptoms. Part II is more technical than Part I but is not too difficult to be read with profit by anyone interested in the subject. The case histories given to illustrate the various problems which the unstable child presents and the results of remedial treatment are exceedingly suggestive.

In general, the book is a most timely contribution to education. It points out very definitely the source of many of our difficulties in the instruction and management of children. Until we are able to understand how the individual child uses his intelligence, we cannot expect to profit greatly from merely knowing the amount of intelligence he possesses. The treatment throughout is stimulating, suggestive, and constructive. The volume should be enthusiastically received by progressive teachers, administrative officers, social workers, and lay readers.

W. C. REAVIS

Psychology as self-discipline.—One of the most successful attempts to make psychology intelligible and useful to the beginning student is the recent contribution¹ by Henry Eastman Bennett.

The point of view of the author is essentially that of the functionalist; he emphasizes the physiological basis of mental phenomena after the manner of Angell and James; in fact, the influence of these writers is strongly evident throughout the book. For the most part, there is nothing unusual about the order or the character of the topics discussed; there is, however, strikingly obvious variation from the typical introductory text in the manner of exposition and presentation. This variation is evident in two particular aspects of the author's discussion.

First, the author adheres strictly to the policy of including only those facts which are generally accepted by psychologists and employs technical vocabulary only when the context makes the meaning clear. For example, the chapter on the nervous system is confined to a description of the major facts of the nervous mechanism, such as the neurone, synapse, sensory-motor arc, and nervous organization, omitting detailed accounts of the various theories of nervous energy, localization of brain functions, and the development of the nervous

¹ Henry Eastman Bennett, *Psychology and Self-Development*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1923. Pp. viii+296.

system. Again, in the chapter on instinct, the author singles out the salient features of innate tendencies and carefully avoids any perplexing injection of the present controversy over the topic. With the same caution, he dismisses the problem of imageless thought. This method of treatment does not mean that the author's discussion is inadequate or superficial; on the contrary, the essential data are presented in a manner advantageous to the student.

The second variation and the most distinct contribution of the book is the author's ideal of the introductory course in psychology as a project in the development of the student's learning capacity. In the first place, the book is the product of years of experience on the part of the author. As a result, it is written primarily for the student as a learner. The general procedure in each chapter is to devote the first part to an elucidation of the topic and the last part to illustrations of the topic in problems close to the experience of the student. In the first chapter, "The Art of Learning," the student is given some good advice on how to study. The chapter on "Habit" is the occasion for emphasis on James's famous exhortations. The chapter on "Knowledge and Belief" is excellently written with a view to giving assurance to the immature student in his first contacts with disturbing scientific doctrines. The chapter on "Straight Thinking and Accurate Statement"—a departure from the usual list of topics and one which could well be included by other writers—gives sane advice on straight thinking and is designed to make the student critical of quick generalizations, partial truths, and prejudices and skeptical of the use of quotations, analogies, proverbs, and newspaper pabulum. In fact, this chapter in itself, from the point of view of the student and the aims of education, is of sufficient value to justify the book.

The supplementary reading for each topic includes books which should be available in any normal-school or college library. Although some of the questions at the ends of the chapters might lead to futile conjecture about topics concerning which everyone has an opinion, the exercises are generally very pertinent and consistent in bearing out the practical tendency of the discussion.

The book makes no pretentious claim as a contribution to psychological doctrine; nor does it pose as an advanced interpretation of human experience. It attempts to present the essential facts of psychology in order to stimulate further pursuit of the subject and in order to improve the student's technique of learning by showing him the multitude of helpful applications which psychology offers in everyday experience. In fulfilling this tremendously important, but modest, purpose, this book should serve well as the basis for a course in beginning psychology in normal schools and colleges.

HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY

A pictorial history of the United States.—The unique feature of a recently published history of the United States² is the extensive use made of pictures,

² Albert Bushnell Hart, *We and Our History*. New York: Boni & Liveright, Inc., 1923. Pp. 320. \$1.80.

cartoons, posters, and maps. According to the publishers, the volume contains eighteen full-page drawings, fifty pictorial charts, numerous maps, and more than seven hundred and fifty half-tone and line illustrations. Most of the illustrations are admirable, although a few of the imaginative ones are open to adverse criticism. Especially worthy of commendation are such cuts as the six depicting the weapons of labor (p. 207), the fourteen maps indicating the growth of the United States (p. 171), and the pictorial chart showing the racial composition of the population of the thirteen colonies about 1775 (p. 135). Seen as a whole, the illustrative material gives a bird's-eye view of the history of America and makes a strong appeal to the observer.

The author has been more successful in his selection of the pictorial material than in his narrative treatment. The book "is to be a history not of the select governing forces of the United States but of the people as a whole. It deals not simply with questions that can be discussed in Congress and summed up in statute books but rather with the life of the people as shown by their conquest of the continent, their schools, their organizations, their inventions, their work, their skill, and their patriotism" (p. 5). To attain this ambitious objective in three hundred and twenty pages of text, more than half of which are devoted to illustrative material of various sorts, is a most difficult, if not impossible, task and one which the author can be regarded as having accomplished only in the most impressionistic manner, if, indeed, he has done that. In this respect the volume is disappointing.

The book is divided into four parts: "Foundations of the Republic (1492-1789)," "The Young United States (1789-1865)," "Welding the Nation (1865-1897)," and "Twentieth-Century Americans (1898-1923)." About one-half of the space is given to the period since the Civil War. The last section in each of the nineteen chapters is devoted to a biographical sketch of the American who best illustrates the spirit of the period treated in the chapter. Thus, chapter iv, "How the Colonies Became a Nation," is accompanied by a brief account of George Washington; chapter vi, "Getting under Way," by an account of Thomas Jefferson; and chapter xiv, "Developing the Nation," by an account of James J. Hill. These selections are appropriate, but the reader is puzzled over the choice of Robert Fulton to accompany chapter vii, "Popular Government," and of Samuel L. Clemens to accompany chapter xvii, "Care of the People." An appendix contains the Mayflower Compact, the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, and the Constitution of the United States with annotations and analysis, the paragraphs from Monroe's message which constitute the Monroe Doctrine, and questions and problems on the text.

The treatment is in part heavy and encyclopedic. Like the preceding volumes in the series, the book seems to be designed primarily for citizenship training classes for the foreign-born. It is not suitable as a textbook for class use, but its wealth of pictorial material will make it a favorite among the volumes on history in the library.

HOWARD C. HILL

Notes and suggestions on the teaching of chemistry.—With a view to furnishing teachers of chemistry with more specific information and suggestions concerning the teaching of general chemistry and qualitative analysis than are contained in the more general books on methods of teaching science, J. O. Frank has prepared a second, enlarged edition¹ of his notes and suggestions in three parts, as follows: Part I, "General Chemistry"; Part II, "Qualitative Analysis"; Part III, "Special Aids in Teaching Chemistry."

Although inclined to be pessimistic about the training of teachers and the present courses in high-school chemistry, the author offers excellent suggestions in Part I on the modern trend of chemistry teaching, the teacher's preparation, the objectives of the course, the selection of a textbook, the buying and caring for equipment and supplies, and a standard course in chemistry. In connection with the standard course, the author has summarized a plan of instruction for college chemistry which considers in a specific way such phases of instruction as "How to Study," "Laboratory Work," "Written Tests," "Methods of Tabulating and Analyzing Results of Written Tests," "The Oral Quiz," and "Written Work." The fundamental phases of the plan are then applied to the consideration of high-school methods. This last section is supplemented by an excellent bibliography of articles on the teaching of chemistry and a list of the factors to be considered in judging teaching efficiency. Finally, there is a self-rating sheet for use in observation by student-teachers.

Part II is a plea for the inclusion of the fundamentals of qualitative analysis in the second or third semester of the chemistry course. In addition to the arguments for such study, there are directions for preparing for the work and carrying it on.

The specific information contained in Part III is just what the average teacher is eager to have. Here one finds a list of well-selected projects for individual research by the student, directions for the ordering of pertinent government bulletins, a very good list of exhibits and informational literature obtainable from industrial concerns, first-aid equipment and suggestions, a bibliography of tests and measurements in chemistry teaching, a one-hundred-dollar book-list, a list of reagents for the general course and specific directions for the preparation of the solutions needed, and, at the end of the book, a list of apparatus for the student and directions for an acid-proof finish on laboratory tables.

The author is to be congratulated for giving to inexperienced chemistry teachers and especially to those who are preparing for the teaching of chemistry exactly the kind of specific suggestions which they need and which they usually fail to get in the more general course in methods of teaching. Any chemistry teacher who will make use of these notes and suggestions, whether or not he agrees with some of the more general considerations, will make his work more

¹ J. O. Frank, *Teaching First Year Chemistry*. Oshkosh, Wisconsin: J. O. Frank, State Normal School, 1924 [revised]. Pp. 64. \$1.00.

alive and more successful and place his chemistry course on a firmer basis as one of the subjects essential for a liberal secondary education.

CHARLES J. PIEPER

A new textbook of Portuguese.—The study of Portuguese has been making modest advances in spite of many handicaps, not the least of which has been a total lack of textbooks suitable for American students. This condition promises to be remedied. Two distinguished scholars, authors of one of the most popular Spanish grammars, have announced a Portuguese grammar for immediate publication, and an excellent text¹ for the use of beginners has just appeared. With such aids, an increase of interest in the study of Portuguese may be anticipated.

The Visconde de Taunay (1843-99), soldier-author, is one of the most artistic and popular of Brazil's novelists. *Innocencia* is his greatest success. It has been translated into many languages and was the first work of Brazilian literature to be filmed for the moving pictures. It is a simple tale of thwarted love, a domestic drama enacted in the great Brazilian hinterland. The American reader finds himself transported into a new world. The realistic and sympathetic portrayal of the life there led will interest even those who find the novel's old-fashioned sentimentality cloying. Mr. Jones has made a happy choice of a text. There is plenty of action. The characters are interesting, and the style is simple and well adapted to the beginner. Judicious abridgment hastens the action and reduces the text to the limit of one hundred pages.

In his introduction, Mr. Jones discusses Brazilian literature before Taunay, that author, his works, and *Innocencia* in particular. The vocabulary and the notes are scholarly, sensible, and in accord with the beginner's pedagogical needs. The editor supplies the present lack of a good Portuguese grammar in English by providing an "Outline of Grammatical Forms," in which one finds the necessary declensions, conjugations, and rules of syntax. There are no conversation exercises.

It is to be hoped that Mr. Jones's little book will receive the cordial recognition that it deserves.

G. T. NORTHUP

The political geography of the United States.—Certain aspects of human life are related to their natural settings. Of such relationships, those of economic activities are the best known because they are the most obvious and the most easily traced. In some instances political views and actions have physical backgrounds. The connection—perhaps because it is less direct and immediate—is not always as apparent as in the case of earning a living.

¹ Alfredo d'Escragno Taunay, *Innocencia*. Edited by Maro Beath Jones. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1923. Pp. xxiv+196. \$1.20.

In *The New World*, published in 1922, an examination was made of the domestic and foreign problems of most of the nations of the world. Many of their policies were discussed in their relations to location, natural resources, boundaries, etc. Pending the issue of a revised and enlarged edition of this work, a supplement^{*} has been published, dealing with "the problems confronting the United States today." At the outset the author asks:

What are some of the gravest weaknesses in the structure of our domestic life that affect our unity and our foreign relations? What are our problem areas and our zones of friction? Where do we stand in the esteem of the world? What dangers beset our pathway? Intent in the past on dealing with the internal problems of the United States, have we had the training to treat other nations in a spirit of fairness? In our foreign relations do we behave so as to elevate the prestige of democracy, or do we emphasize its waywardness and its tyrannies? In dealing with another nation, is independence or power of understanding the greater quality? [p. 1].

In answering these and similar questions, the writer discusses the situation of the United States under four headings: (1) "The Internal Situation," (2) "Foreign Relations in the Americas," (3) "American Interests in the Philippines and the Pacific," and (4) "Foreign Relations Imposed by Civilization."

In the first section there is shown the vital relationship between a rapidly increasing population and the end of cheap land, reclamation projects, and the development of cities, with all of which are linked matters of foreign trade and immigration. "In dealing with the negro problem we confront at present not one grand problem but a number of distinct problems. They are all related, but they have different regional significances. The negro as a part of our industrial problem in northern cities is one thing; negro land-holding in the South is another" (p. 17). Sectionalism has a background of natural resources and allied activities, as evidenced in the movement for reciprocity with Canada, whereby eastern cities would secure cheaper flour, a movement doomed by midwestern farmers who "were just finding economic independence within their grasp" (p. 28).

Besides such foreign relations, which have a more or less domestic and even sectional origin, there are others to which the nation as a whole reacts, as, for example, the question of national borders, the investment of funds, the exchange of commodities, and the treatment of nationals. On the north, "the physiographic provinces of one [country] merge into those of the other. . . . Both nations use the Great Lakes, where a commerce of the first magnitude has been developed, the character of which is similar on both sides of the line. . . . British Columbia is as interested as California in the exclusion of the colored races. . . . Citizens of the United States have invested more than two billions in Canadian enterprises" (p. 32). On the south, between the Americans and the Mexicans lie many square miles of waste land or desert. Inter-

^{*} Isaiah Bowman, *Supplement to "The New World: Problems in Political Geography."* Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1923. Pp. iv+98. \$0.50.

national adjustments have been made with reference to this and other natural phenomena. Relations with Central American and South American states are intensified by proximity, territorial expansion, and a growing need in the north for raw materials from the south.

Ownership of the Philippines gives point to American interests in all matters pertaining to the Pacific, whether of trade, strategy, or inter-oriental politics.

The relationships of the United States with Europe and the rest of the world are treated in the twenty pages of the fourth section, the first few lines of which may be quoted as typical of the author's philosophy in general. "In international relationships it is still a sound principle that the European situation vitally affects the rest of the world. There is no reality to a policy of isolation for a nation of significant size anywhere in the world today" (p. 56). In developing this text, the author deals with the major groups of world population, the scramble for oil reserves, intensified competition for raw materials, inter-allied indebtedness and reparations, and the efforts, on the part of this country, to establish a merchant marine.

Fifteen pages, supplementary to chapter xxvi of *The New World*, give the developments in the political map of Turkey to the date of the Treaty of Lausanne, 1923. An appendix outlines the "Treaties and Resolutions of the Washington Conference (1921-22)" and "the Tacna-Arica Protocol."

Whether or not one agrees with the author's point of view and arguments, the book is a stimulating exposition of one side of a great issue.

H. M. LEPPARD

A comparison of the mental capacity of normal and epileptic children.—A monograph¹ by J. E. Wallace Wallin reports a study made a number of years ago when the author was a psychologist in the New Jersey State Village for Epileptics. The investigation consisted in the application of twelve tests to ninety-nine epileptic children and seventy-six normal children. These tests were devised before the era of group intelligence tests but were so designed that they could be given to groups.

A number of other facts are presented besides the comparison between the normal and the defective children, such, for example, as a comparison of the boys and girls, the age growth in the individual tests, and the range of individual differences. The most significant comparison was between the epileptic children and the normal children. The difference was considerable in every test and was in each case in favor of the normal children. The difference was much greater in some of the tests, however, than in others. The percentage of the normal score which was made by the epileptic children on the average varied from 15 per cent in the case of the opposites test to 80 per cent in the case of

¹ J. E. Wallace Wallin, *The Measurement of Mental Traits in Normal and Epileptic Children*. Miami University Bulletin, Series XXI, No. 8. Oxford, Ohio: Miami University, 1923. Pp. 176.

quickness in drawing circles. When the tests were classified into those which measured intellectual capacity, memory, and motor skill, it was found that the differences between the normal and the epileptic children were greatest in the order of the abilities named.

The intellectual tests which showed the greatest differences were the opposites test, a free association test, two addition tests, a word construction test, and a sentence construction test. The memory tests included one in range of apprehension, one in the memory of paired associates, and one in the recognition of pictures. The two tests of sensory motor skill were crossing out *a*'s and drawing circles.

The results correspond to a large amount of evidence which we have that defective children are most inferior in tests which measure higher intellectual capacity and least inferior in those which measure sensory keenness or motor skill.

F. N. FREEMAN

A study of colonial education in Virginia.—One does not fully realize the educational progress made in America until the first attempts in the direction of a scheme of instruction are examined. It is interesting to note the efforts in education of the first colony, as shown in a recent Teachers College publication.¹

The problem of education in Virginia was quite different, even in the beginning, from that of the New England states. The English parish custom was used as a basis in both instances but developed into very different systems of instruction. In New England, the compact settlements, the fairly equal status of the inhabitants, and the uniformity of religious belief combined to promote the establishment of public schools for all of the children. This development of the common schools was not possible in Virginia on account of social and economic distinctions and the wide distribution of a rural population. The result was that organized public effort, with the parish as the unit, was confined chiefly to the education of the poor. A system of compulsory apprenticeship gave trade training and schooling to dependent children and to those whose parents were negligent or too poor to furnish them an education. Provision was also made for the establishment of county-parish work schools. In some cases the vestries paid the tuition of poor children in private schools. Later the vestries were given the right to establish workhouses and to levy a tax for their support. In some places wealthy men endowed schools for the education of the poor and commonly gave over their administration, in whole or in part, to parish officials. While responsibility was divided between the county and the parish during most of the colonial period, the parish gradually assumed a more prominent part in educational control. The attempts were entirely inadequate to care

¹ Guy Fred Wells, *Parish Education in Colonial Virginia*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 138. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923. Pp. 96.

for the large number of poor children, and in most instances the kind of parish education provided for in law was neglected.

The outstanding conclusion of the study is that colonial Virginia associated the idea of public education with that of provision for the poor. It is probable that such a concept hindered, rather than aided, the development of the common schools, since no class could whole-heartedly back such a plan. The numerous quotations and references, together with the rather extensive bibliography, are evidence of considerable research in the source materials of the colonial period.

CARTER V. GOOD

Training the junior citizen.—There is probably no subject in the school curriculum which has called forth so many books in the past few years as social science. Training for citizenship is now regarded by all educators as one of the major objectives of education. Many and varied groups of persons have tried and are trying to determine the nature and character of the citizenship training needed in our social science courses. An elaborate "socialized" program for the preadolescent age which centers around the organized activities of the boy and girl in such organizations as the Boy Scouts and the Camp Fire Girls is offered in the recent text¹ by Nathaniel F. Forsyth.

The book has three parts. The Introduction recognizes the new and complex social environment of the junior citizen and the problem of proper training and points the way to the procedure. In the second part, the author devotes about one-half of the book to "first-year programs" of training for the junior citizen. Organizations and games play a large part in the programs suggested. An organization, called "Modern Health Crusaders," for the purpose of building strong bodies and looking after the health of the community is typical. The third part is devoted to "second-year programs" of the same general character as those in Part II.

The book contains many suggestions regarding games, plays, and organizations adapted to the junior citizen. It will be useful as a handbook for directors of Boy Scout and Camp Fire Girl Organizations and for the teacher who is responsible for the social program of the school.

B. F. STALCUP

STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
WINONA, MINNESOTA

A new third-year Latin text.—The dissatisfaction which has been felt among Latin teachers with the traditional Latin course has increased to the point where there is a widespread demand for greater variety in the choice of reading material. In many schools only one book is available for each year of the course, and the selections to be read must be taken from the one source. Generally,

¹ Nathaniel F. Forsyth, *Training the Junior Citizen*. New York: Abingdon Press, 1923. Pp. 304. \$1.50.

the book for the third year of the Latin course includes merely Cicero's four orations against Catiline, the Manilian Law, and the Archias. The need for greater variety in reading material has been partly met by a recent book¹ adapted for use in third-year Latin.

The book contains selections from Caesar, Cicero, and Ovid. As there is a growing tendency in many schools to substitute easier Latin for Caesar in a part or in the whole of the second year, portions of Caesar have been included in this third-year text. All of Book II is given, while selections have been made from Books III, IV, V, and VI. A summary of Book VII is included so that the pupils will have the story as a whole. With regard to the reading of some Caesar in the third year, the authors state:

Classes which have given the entire second year to other Latin than Caesar are here provided with as much Caesar as any teacher is likely to wish. The remainder of the year may be devoted to Cicero or Ovid or to selections from both. If a class has read in the second year as much Caesar as the teacher thinks desirable, this book offers abundant material for the third year in Cicero and Ovid. In such cases, however, a few chapters properly selected from the portion of Caesar which has not been read will usually prove a profitable introduction for the early weeks of the year, when habits of study have been interrupted by the months of the summer vacation. The opportunity to begin with an author whose vocabulary and style have become in some measure familiar, may serve to give confidence when it is most needed (pp. 5-6).

From Cicero, the first and third orations against Catiline, the Archias, and the Manilian Law have been chosen.

The stories from Ovid's *Metamorphoses* include "The Flood," "Phaëton," "Cadmus," "Pyramus and Thisbe," "Atlas," "Perseus and Andromeda," "Ceres and Proserpina," "Niobe," "Daedalus and Icarus," "Philemon and Baucis," "Orpheus and Eurydice," "Atalanta," "Midas and the Golden Touch," "Aesculapius," and the "Epilogue."

In the introduction to Part I a brief account of the most important events in the life of Caesar and a description of the Roman military organization are given. In Part II there is an account of Cicero's life and a sketch of the Roman commonwealth. The main events in the life of Ovid and a short introduction to the elementary principles of Latin verse are included in Part III.

The notes, which are on the same page with the Latin text, are ample for an interpretation of the historical background and an understanding of the obscure terms. Fortunately, these notes are not overburdened with explanations of the grammar and with unnecessary translations of difficult passages. The book is attractive in appearance and contains many illustrations. Altogether, it is a valuable collection of reading material for the third year of the Latin course.

CLAIRE C. THURSBY

¹ Frederick Warren Sanford, Harry Fletcher Scott, and Charles Henry Beeson, *A Third Latin Book: Selections from Caesar, Cicero, Ovid*. The Lake Classical Series. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1923. Pp. 396+140.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY,
AND PRACTICE

- CHANG, PENG CHUN. *Education for Modernization in China*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 137. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923. Pp. 92.
- COE, GEORGE A. *Law and Freedom in the School*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1924. Pp. x+134. \$1.75.
- CONE, JOHN ALBERT. *A Superintendent's Suggestions to Teachers*. New York: Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge, Inc., 1924. Pp. viii+82. \$0.80.
- JONES, LANCE G. E. *The Training of Teachers in England and Wales*. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1924. Pp. x+486. \$3.50.
- McMILLAN, MARGARET. *Education through the Imagination*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1924. Pp. 208. \$2.00.
- STOOPS, R. O. *Elementary School Costs in the State of New York*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. Pp. x+124.
- Survey of the Junior High Schools of the City of New York*. New York: Board of Education, 1923. Pp. 258.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BAILEY, N. BETH. *Meal Planning and Table Service in the American Home*. Peoria, Illinois: Manual Arts Press, 1923. Pp. 128. \$1.60.
- The Chiswell Book of English Poetry*. Compiled by Robert Bridges. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1924. Pp. xvi+272. \$1.25.
- M. Tulli Ciceronis de Provinciis Consularibus Oratio ad Senatum. Edited by H. E. Butler and M. Cary. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1924. Pp. 110. \$1.50.
- DE GARMO, CHARLES, and WINSLOW, LEON LOYAL. *Essentials of Design*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. Pp. x+256.
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- HUNTER, MERLIN H., and WATKINS, GORDON S. *The Background of Economics*. New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., Inc., 1923. Pp. x+514. \$3.00.
- Longman's Abbreviated French Texts. *L'Aventure de Jacques Gérard* by M. Stephane and *Le Paysan et l'Avocat* by É. Souvestre, pp. 36, \$0.15. *La Comète* and *Pourquoi Hunebourg ne Fut pas Rendu* by Erckmann-Chatrian, pp. 32, \$0.15. *L'Ecluseur* by É. Souvestre, pp. 48, \$0.25. *La Montre du Doyen* and *Le Vieux Tailleur* by Erckmann-Chatrian, pp. 56, \$0.25. *Le Comte Kostia* by Victor Cherbuliez, pp. 64, \$0.30. *Ursule Mirouët* by H. de Balzac, pp. 72, \$0.30. Edited by T. H. Bertenshaw. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1923.

- MALOT, HECTOR. *Sans Famille*. Edited by Robert Fouré and Hélène Fouré. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1924. Pp. viii+224. \$0.70.
- MEYER, A. *Vocabulary-Building Speller*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. Pp. viii+140.
- PEABODY, JAMES EDWARD, and HUNT, ARTHUR ELLSWORTH. *Biology and Human Welfare*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. Pp. xii+584.
- PELSMA, JOHN R. *Essentials of Speech*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1924 [revised]. Pp. x+326. \$2.00.
- REED, MAUD. *Julia* (a Latin reading book). New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. Pp. xii+98.
- WHITBECK, R. H., and FINCH, V. C. *Economic Geography*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1924. Pp. x+558. \$3.50.

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AND OTHER MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

- Booklist Books, 1923: A Selection*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1924. Pp. 44. \$0.45.
- Eighth Yearbook of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*. Edited by H. V. Church. Cicero, Illinois: H. V. Church, 1924. Pp. lxxii+222.
- Nationality and Age-Grade Surveys in the Public Schools of Newark, New Jersey*. Newark, New Jersey: Board of Education, 1923. Pp. 46.
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